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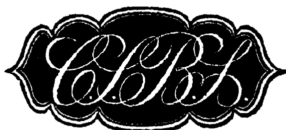
HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FROM THE

INVASION OF JULIUS CÆSAR

TO THE

Accession of her present Majesty Victoria.



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THE HISTORY

OF

ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

OF BRITAIN.

From the Invasion of Julius Cæsar to the Abdication of the Romans.

B. C. 35.—A. D. 446.

BRITAIN was but very little known to the rest of the world before the time of the Romans. The coasts opposite Gaul were frequented by merchants, who traded thither for such commodities as the natives were able to produce, and who, after a time, possessed themselves of all the maritime places where they had at first been permitted to reside. Finding the country fertile, and commodiously situated for trade, they settled upon the sea side, and introduced the practice of agriculture. But the inland inhabitants of the country, who considered themselves as the lawful possessors of the soil. avoided all correspondence with men whom they viewed as intruders upon their property.

The inland inhabitants are represented as extremely numerous, living in cottages thatched with straw, and feeding large herds of cattle. They lived mostly upon milk, or flesh procured by the chace. What clothes they wore to cover any part of their bodies, were usually the skins of beasts; but the arms, legs, and thighs, were left naked, and were decorated with blue lines traced in the skin. Their hair, which was long, flowed down upon their backs and shoulders, while their beards, were kept closely shaven, except upon he upper lip, where it was suffered to grow. The dress of

savage nations is every where nearly alike, being calculated rather to inspire terror than to excite respect.

As to their government, it consisted of several small principalities, under different leaders; and this seems to be the earliest mode of dominion with which mankind were acquainted, and is deduced from the natural privileges of paternal authority. Upon great and imminent dangers, a commander-in-chief was chosen by common consent, in a general assembly; and to him was committed the conduct of the general interest, in peace or war.

Their forces consisted chiefly of foot, and yet they could bring a considerable number of horse into the field upon great occasions. They likewise used chariots in battle, which with short scythes fastened to the ends of the axletrees, inflicted terrible wounds, spreading horror and devastation wheresoever they drove. Nor were the warriors who conducted them unemployed; these darted their javelins against the enemy, ran along the beam, leaped on the ground, resumed their seat, stopped, or turned their horses at full speed, and sometimes cunningly retreated, to draw the enemy into confusion.

The religion of the Britons was one of the most considerable parts of their government; and the Druids, who were the guardians of it, possessed great authority among them. No species of superstition was ever more terrible than theirs: besides the severe penalties which they were permitted to inflict in this world, they inculcated the eternal transmigration of souls, and thus extended their authority as far as the fears of their votaries. They sacrificed hnman victims, which they burned in large wicker idols, made so capacious as to contain a multitude of persons at once, who were thus consumed together. To these rites they added the austerity of their manners, and the simplicity of their lives. They lived in woods, caves, and hollow trees; their food was acorns and berries, and their drink water. By these arts they were not only respected, but almost adored by the people, whose manners took a tincture from the discipline of their teachers. Their lives were simple, but they were marked with cruelty and fierceness: their courage was great, but neither dignified by mercy nor perseverance.

The Britons had long remained in this rude, but independent state, when Cæsar, having victoriously overrun Gaul, and willing still farther to extend his fame, determined upon

the conquest of a country that seemed to promise an easy triumph. Accordingly he set sail for Britain about midnight, and the next morning arrived on the coast near Dover, where he saw the rocks and cliffs covered with armed men to oppose his landing.

The Britons had chosen Cassibelaunus for their commander-in-chief; but the petty princes under his command, either from suspicion or jealousy, threw off their allegiance. Some of them fled with their forces into the internal parts of the kingdom, others submitted to Cæsar, till at length Cassibelaunus himself, thus weakened, resolved upon making what terms he was able, while he yet had power to keep the field. The conditions offered by Cæsar and accepted by him were, that he should send to the continent double the number of hostages at first demanded, and that he should acknowledge subjection to the Romans. Cæsar, however, was obliged to return once more to compel the Britons to complete their stipulated treaty.

The next emperor, Augustus, formed a design of visiting Britain, but was diverted from it by an unexpected revolt of the Pannonians. Tiberius, wisely judging the empire already too extensive, made no attempt upon Britain. From that time the natives began to improve in all the arts which contribute to the advancement of human nature. The wild extravagancies of Caligula, by which he threatened Britain with an invasion, served rather to expose him to ridicule than the island to danger. At length the Romans, in the reign of Claudius, began to think seriously of reducing them under their dominion. The expedition for this purpose was conducted in the beginning by Plautius and other commanders, with that success which usually attended the Roman arms.

Caractacus was the first who seemed willing, by a vigorous effort, to rescue his country; and with inferior forces, continued, for above nine years, to oppose and harass the Romans; till at length he was totally routed, and taken prisoner by Ostorius Scapula, who sent him in triumph to Rome. While Caractacus was being led through Rome, he appeared no ways dejected at the amazing concourse of spectators that were gathered upon this occasion, but casting his eyes on the splendours that surrounded him: "Alas," cried he, "how is it possible that a people possessed of such magnificence at home, could envy me an humble cottage in Britain!" The emperor was affected with the British hero's

misfortunes; and won by his address, he ordered him to be unchained upon the spot, and set at liberty, with the rest of the captives.

The cruel treatment of Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, drove the Britons once more into open rebellion. Prasatagus, king of the Iceni, at his death had bequeathed one-half of his dominions to the Romans, and the other to his daughters, thus hoping, by the sacrifice of a part, to secure the rest in his family: but it had a different effect; for the Roman procurator immediately took possession of the whole; and when Boadicea, the widow of the deceased, attempted to remonstrate, he ordered her to be scourged like a slave, and violated the chastity of her daughters. These outrages were sufficient to produce a revolt throughout the island. The Iceni, as being the most deeply interested in the quarrel, were the first to take arms: all the other states soon followed the example; and Boadicea, a woman of great beauty and masculine spirit, was appointed to head the common forces, which amounted to two hundred and thirty thousand fighting men. These, exasperated by their wrongs, attacked several of the Roman settlements and colonies with success. Paulinus, who commanded the Roman forces, hastened to relieve London, which was already a flourishing colony; but found on his arrival that it would be requisite for the general safety to abandon that place to the merciless fury of the enemy. London was soon, therefore, reduced to ashes: such of the inhabitants as remained in it were massacred; and the Romans, with all other strangers, to the amount of seventy thousand, were cruelly put to the sword. Flushed with these successes, the Britons boldly came to the place where Paulinus awaited their arrival, posted in a very advantageous manner with a body of ten thousand men. The battle was obstinate and bloody. Boadicea herself appeared in a chariot with her two daughters, and harangued her army with masculine intrepidity; but the irregular and undisciplined bravery of her troops was unable to resist the cool intrepidity of the Romans. They were routed with great slaughter: eighty thousand perished in the field, and an infinite number were made prisoners; while Boadicea herself, fearing to fall into the hands of the enraged victor, put an end to her life by poison.

The general who finally established the dominion of the Romans in this island, was Julius Agricola, who governed it during the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, and

distinguished himself as well by his courage as humanity. For several years after his time, a profound peace seems to have prevailed in Britain, and little mention is made of the affairs of the island by any historian. At length, however, Rome, that had for ages given laws to nations, and diffused slavery and oppression over the known world, began to sink under her own magnificence. Mankind, as if by a general consent, rose up to vindicate their natural freedom; almost every nation asserting that independence of which they had been long so unjustly deprived.

During these struggles, the British youth were frequently drawn away into Gaul, to give ineffectual succour to the various contenders for the empire, who failing in every attempt, only left the name of tyrants behind them. In the mean time, as the Roman forces decreased in Britain, the Picts and Scots began to infest the northern parts; and crossing the Friths, which the Romans could not guard, in little wicker boats, covered with leather, filled the country wherever they came with slaughter and consternation.

The Romans, therefore, finding it impossible to stand their ground in Britain, in the reign of the emperor Valentinian, took their last leave of the island, after being masters of it near four hundred years, and left the natives to the choice of their own government and kings. They gave them the best instructions the calamitous times would permit, for exercising their arms and repairing their ramparts, and helped them to erect anew a wall of stone built by the emperor Severus across the island.

CHAPTER II.

THE SAXONS.

A. D. 447—827.

THE Britons being now left to themselves, considered their new liberties as their greatest calamity. The Picts and Scots uniting together, began to look upon Britain as their own, and attacked, with success, the northern wall which the Romans had built to keep off their incursions. Having thus opened to themselves a passage, they ravaged the whole country with impunity, while the Britons sought precarious shelter in their woods and mountains.

It was in this deplorable and enfeebled state that the Britons had recourse to the Saxons, a brave people, who for

their strength and valour were formidable to all the German nations around them. They were restless and bold, considered war as their trade; and were, in consequence, taught to consider victory as a doubtful advantage, but courage as a certain good. A nation, however, entirely addicted to war, has seldom wanted the imputation of cruelty, as those terrors which are opposed without fear, are often inflicted without mercy. The Saxons are represented as a very cruel nation: but we must remember that their enemies have drawn the picture.

It was no disagreeable circumstance to these ambitious people to be invited into a country upon which they had for ages before been forming designs. In consequence, therefore, of Vortigern's solemn invitation, who was then king of Britain, they arrived with fifteen hundred men, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, who were brothers, and landed on the isle of Thanet. There being joined by the British forces, they boldly marched against the Picts and Scots, who had advanced as far as Lincolnshire, and soon gained a complete victory over them.

The Saxons, however, being sensible of the fertility of the country to which they had come, and the barrenness of that which they had left behind, invited over great numbers of their countrymen to become sharers in their new expedition. Accordingly, they received a fresh supply of five thousand men, who passed over in seventeen vessels, and soon made a permanent establishment in the island.

The British historians, in order to account for the easy conquest of their country by the Saxons, assign their treachery, not less than their valour, as a principal cause. They allege, that Vortigern was artfully inveigled into a passion for Rowena, the daughter of Hengist: and in order to marry her, was induced to settle the fertile province of Kent upon her father, from whence the Saxons could never after be removed. It is alleged also, that upon the death of Vortimer, which shortly happened after the victory he obtained at Eglesford, Vortigern, his father, was reinstated upon the throne. It is added, that this weak monarch, accepting of a festival from Hengist, three hundred of his nobility were treacherously slaughtered, and himself detained as a captive.

After the death of Hengist, several other German tribes, allured by the success of their countrymen, went over in great numbers. A body of Saxons, under the conduct of

Ælla and his three sons, had some time before laid the foundation of the kingdom of the South Saxons, though not without great opposition and bloodshed. This new kingdom included Surrey, Sussex, and the New Forest, and extended to the frontiers of Kent.

Another tribe of Saxons, under the command of Cerdic and his son Kenric, landed in the west, and from thence took the name of West Saxons. These met with a very vigorous opposition from the natives; but being reinforced from Germany, and assisted by their countrymen on the island, they routed the Britons; and although retarded in their progress by the celebrated king Arthur, had strength enough to keep possession of the conquests they had already made. Cerdic, therefore, with his son Kenric, established the third Saxon kingdom in the island, namely, that of the West Saxons, including the counties of Hants, Dorset, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight.

It was in opposing this Saxon invader that the celebrated prince Arthur acquired his fame. This prince is of such obscure origin, that some authors suppose him to be the son of king Ambrosius, and others only his nephew; others again affirm that he was a Cornish prince, and son of Gurlois, king of that province. However this be, it is certain he was a commander of great valour; and if courage alone could have repaired the miserable state of the Britons, his might have been effectual. According to the most authentic historians, he is said to have worsted the Saxons in twelve successive battles. In one of these, namely, that fought at Caerbadon, in Berks, it is asserted that he killed no less than four hundred and forty of the enemy with his own hand. But the Saxons were too numerous and powerful to be extirpated by the desultory efforts of single valour; so that a peace was the only fruit of his victories. The enemy, therefore, still gained ground; and this prince, in the decline of his life, had the mortification, from some domestic troubles of his own, to be a patient spectator of their encroachments. His first wife had been carried off by Melnas, king of Somersetshire, who detained her a whole year at Glastonbury, until Arthur, discovering the place of her retreat, advanced with an army against the ravisher, and obliged him to give her back. In his second wife, perhaps, he might have been fortunate, as we have no mention made of her; but it was otherwise with his third consort, who was debauched by his own nephew,

Mordred. This produced a rebellion, in which the king and his traitorous kinsman, meeting in battle, slew each other.

In the mean time, while the Saxons were thus gaining ground in the west, their countrymen were not less active in other parts of the island. Adventurers still continuing to pour over from Germany, one body of them, under the command of Uffa, seized upon the counties of Cambridge, Suffolk, and Norfolk, and gave their commander the title of king of the East Angles, which was the fourth Saxon kingdom founded in Britain. Another body of these adventurers formed a kingdom under the title of East Saxony, or Essex, comprehending Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire. This kingdom, which was dismembered from that of Kent, formed the fifth Saxon principality founded in Britain. The kingdom of Mercia was the sixth which was established by these fierce invaders, comprehending all the middle counties, from the banks of the Severn to the frontiers of the last named kingdoms.

The seventh and last kingdom which they obtained was that of Northumberland, one of the most powerful and extensive of them all. This was formed from the union of two smaller Saxon kingdoms, the one called Bernicia, containing the present county of Northumberland, and the bishoprick of Durham; the subjects of the other, called the Deiri, extending themselves over Lancashire and Yorkshire. These kingdoms were united in the person of Ethelfrid, king of Northumberland, by the expulsion of Edwin, his brother-in-law, from the kingdom of the Deiri; and the seizure of his dominions. In this manner, seven kingdoms were established in Britain, which have been since well known by the name of the Saxon Heptarchy.

The Saxons being thus established in all the desirable parts of the island, and having no longer the Britons to contend with, began to quarrel among themselves. A country divided into a number of petty independent principalities must ever be subject to contention, as jealousy and ambition have more frequent incentives to operate. After a series, therefore, of battles, treasons, and stratagems, all these petty principalities fell under the power of Egbert, king of Wessex, whose merits deserved dominion, and whose prudence secured his conquests. By him all the kingdoms of the Heptarchy were united under the common jurisdiction: and to give splendour to his authority, a general council of the clergy and

laity was summoned at Winchester, where he was solemnly crowned king of England, by which name the united kingdom was thenceforward called. Thus, about four hundred years after the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain, all the petty settlements were united into one great state, and nothing offered but prospects of peace, security, and increasing refinement.

It was in the course of the sixth century that St. Gregory undertook to send missionaries among the Saxons, to convert them to Christianity. It is said, that before his elevation to the papal chair, he chanced one day to pass through the slave-market at Rome, and perceiving some children of great beauty who were set up for sale, he inquired about their country, and finding they were English Pagans, he is said to have cried out, in the Latin language, *Non Angli, sed Angeli forent si essent Christiani.* "They would not be English, but Angels, had they been but Christians." From that time he was struck with an ardent desire to convert that unenlightened nation, and ordered a monk, named Augustine, and others of the same fraternity, to undertake a mission into Britain.

This pious monk, upon his first landing in the isle of Thanet, sent one of his interpreters to Ethelbert, the Kentish king, declaring he was come from Rome with offers of eternal salvation. The king immediately ordered them to be furnished with all necessaries, and even visited them, though without declaring himself as yet in their favour. Augustine however, encouraged by this favourable reception, proceeded with redoubled zeal to preach the gospel. The king openly espoused the Christian religion, while his example wrought so successfully on his subjects, that numbers of them came voluntarily to be baptized, their missioner loudly declaring against any coercive means towards their conversion. In this manner the other kingdoms, one after the other, embraced the Christian faith.

CHAPTER III.

THE INVASION OF THE DANES.

A. D. 827—1065.

PEACE and unanimity had been scarcely established in England, when a mighty swarm of those nations called Danes, who had possessed the countries bordering on the Baltic, began to level their fury against England. A small body of them at first landed on the coasts, with a view to learn the

state of the country; and having committed some small depredations, fled to their ships for safety. About seven years after this first attempt, they made a descent upon the kingdom of Northumberland, where they pillaged a monastery; but their fleet being shattered by a storm, they were defeated by the inhabitants, and put to the sword. It was not till about five years after the accession of Egbert, that their invasions became truly formidable. From that time they continued with unceasing ferocity, until the whole kingdom was reduced to a state of the most distressful bondage. Though often repulsed, they always obtained their end, of spoiling the country, and carrying the plunder away. It was their method to avoid coming, if possible, to a general engagement; but scattering themselves over the face of the country, they carried away, indiscriminately, as well the inhabitants themselves, as all their moveable possessions.

At length, however, they resolved upon making a settlement in the country, and, landing on the isle of Thanet, stationed themselves there. In this place they kept their ground, notwithstanding a bloody victory gained over them by Ethelwolf. The reign of Ethelbald, his successor, was of no long continuance; however, in so short a space, he crowded a number of vices sufficient to render his name odious to posterity.

This prince was succeeded by his brother Ethelred, a brave commander, but whose valour was insufficient to repress the Danish incursions. In these exploits, he was always assisted by his younger brother, Alfred, afterwards surnamed the Great, who sacrificed all private resentment to the public good, having been deprived by the king of a large patrimony. It was during Ethelred's reign, that the Danes, penetrating into Mercia, took up their winter quarters at Nottingham; from whence the king, attempting to dislodge them, received a wound in the battle, of which he died, leaving his brother, Alfred, the inheritance of a kingdom that was now reduced to the brink of ruin.

The Danes had already subdued Northumberland and East Anglia, and had penetrated into the very heart of Wessex. The Mercians were united against Alfred; the dependance upon the other provinces of the empire was but precarious; the lands lay uncultivated, through fear of continual incursions: and all the churches and monasteries were burned to the ground. In this terrible situation of affairs,

the wisdom and virtues of one man alone were found sufficient to bring back happiness, security, and order. Alfred seemed born not only to defend his bleeding country, but even to adorn humanity. He had given very early instances of those great virtues which afterwards gave splendour to his reign; and was anointed by pope Leo as future king, when he was sent by his father for his education to Rome. On his return, he became every day more the object of his father's fond affections; but his education was so much neglected, that he had attained the age of twelve before he was made acquainted with the lowest elements of literature; when hearing some Saxon poems read, which recounted the praise of heroes, his mind was roused, not only to obtain similar glory, but also to be able to transmit that glory to posterity. Encouraged by the queen his mother, and assisted by a penetrating genius, he soon learned to read these compositions, and proceeded from thence to a knowledge of Latin authors, who directed his taste, and rectified his ambition.

He was scarcely come to the throne when he was obliged to oppose the Danes, who had seized Wilton, and were ravaging the country round. He fell upon them with a few troops, and fought a desparate battle, though with some disadvantage. But it was not in the power of misfortune to abate the king's diligence, though it repressed his power to do good. He was in a little time enabled to hazard another engagement: so that the enemy, dreading his courage and activity, proposed terms of peace, which he did not think proper to refuse. They, by this treaty, agreed to relinquish the kingdom; but, instead of complying with their engagements, they only removed from one place to another, burning and destroying wherever they came.

Alfred, thus opposed to an enemy whom no stationary force could resist, nor treaties bind, found himself unable to repel the efforts of those savages, who, from all quarters, invaded him. New swarms of the enemy arrived every year upon the coast, and fresh invasions were still projected. Some of his subjects, therefore, left their country, and retired into Wales, or fled to the continent; others submitted to the conquerors, and purchased their lives by their freedom. In this universal defection, Alfred vainly attempted to remind them of the duty they owed their country and their king; but, finding his remonstrances ineffectual, he was obliged to give way to the wretched necessity of the times. Accordingly relinquishing

the ensigns of his dignity, and dismissing his servants, he dressed himself in the habit of a peasant, and lived, for some time, in the house of a herdsman, who had been intrusted with the care of his cattle. In this manner, though abandoned by the world, and fearing an enemy in every quarter, he still resolved to continue in his country, to catch the slightest occasion for bringing it yet relief. In his solitary retreat which was in the county of Somerset, at the confluence of the rives Parret and Thone, he amused himself with music, and supported his humble lot with the hopes of better fortune. It is said, that one day, being commanded by the herdsman's wife, who was ignorant of his quality, to take care of some cakes which were baking by the fire, he happened to let them burn, for which neglect she severely upbraided him.

Previous to his retirement, Alfred had concerted measures for assembling a few trusty friends, whenever an opportunity should offer of annoying the enemy, who were now in possession of all the country. This chosen band, still faithful to their monarch, took shelter in the forests and marshes of Somerset, and from thence made occasional irruptions upon straggling parties of the enemy. Their success in this rapacious and dreary method of living, encouraged many more to join their society, till, at length sufficiently augmented, they repaired to their monarch, who had, by that time, been reduced by famine to the last extremity.

Meanwhile Hubba, the chief of the Danish commanders, had carried terror over the whole land, and now ravaged the country of Wales without opposition. The only place where he found resistance, on his return, was from the castle of Kenwith, into which the earl of Devonshire had retired with a small body of troops. This gallant soldier, finding himself unable to sustain a siege, and knowing the danger of surrendering to a perfidious enemy, was resolved by one desperate effort to sally out and force his way through the besiegers sword in hand. The proposal was embraced by all his followers; while the Danes, secure in their numbers, and in their contempt of the enemy, were not only routed with great slaughter, but Hubba, their general, was slain.

The victory once more restored courage to the dispirited Saxons; and Alfred, taking advantage of their favourable disposition, prepared to animate them to a vigorous exertion of their superiority. He soon therefore, apprised them of the place of his retreat, and instructed them to be ready, with

all their strength, at a minute's warning. But, as no one was found in whom he could confide, and who would undertake to give intelligence of the forces and posture of the enemy, he undertook this dangerous task himself. In the simple dress of a shepherd, with a harp in his hand, he entered the Danish camp, tried all his musical arts to please, and was so much admired that he was brought even into the presence of Guthrum, the Danish prince, with whom he remained some days. There he remarked the supine security of the Danes, their contempt of the English, their negligence in foraging and plundering, and their dissolute wasting of such ill-gotten booty. Having made his observations, he returned to his retreat, and detached proper emissaries among his subjects, appointing them to meet him in arms in the forest of Selwood; a summons which they gladly obeyed.

It was against the most unguarded quarter of the enemy that Alfred made his most violent attack; while the Danes, surprised to behold an army of English, whom they considered as totally subdued, made but a faint resistance. Notwithstanding the superiority of their number, they were routed with great slaughter; and though such as escaped fled for refuge into a fortified camp in the neighbourhood, being unprovided for a siege, in less than a fortnight they were compelled to surrender at discretion. By the conqueror's permission, those who did not choose to embrace Christianity embarked for Flanders, under the command of one of their generals, called Hastings. Guthrum, their prince, became a convert, with thirty of his nobles; and the king himself answered for him at the font.

Alfred had now attained the meridian of glory; he possessed a greater extent of territory than had ever been enjoyed by any of his predecessors; the kings of Wales did him homage for their possessions; the Northumbrians received a king of his appointing: and no enemy appeared to give him the least apprehensions, or excite an alarm. In this state of prosperity and profound tranquillity, which lasted twelve years, Alfred was diligently employed in cultivating the arts of peace, and in repairing the damages which the kingdom had sustained by war. He is said to have drawn up a body of laws; and his care for the encouragement of learning did not a little tend to improve the morals and restrain the barbarous habits of the people. When he came to the throne, he found the English sunk into the grossest ignorance and barbarism,

proceeding from the continued disorders of the government, and from the ravages of the Danes. He himself complains, that, on this occasion, he knew not one person south of the Thames who could so much as interpret the Latin service. To remedy this deficiency, he invited over the most celebrated scholars from all parts of Europe; he founded, or at least re-established the University of Oxford, and endowed it with many privileges; and he gave, in his own example, the strongest incentives to study. He usually divided his time into three equal portions; one was given to sleep, and the refection of his body, diet and exercise; another to the despatch of business; and the third to study and devotion. He made a considerable progress in the different studies of grammar, rhetoric, philosophy, architecture, and geometry. He was an excellent historian; he understood music; he was acknowledged to be the best Saxon poet of the age, and left many works behind him, some of which remain to this day. To give a character of this prince would only be to sum up those qualities which constitute perfection. Even virtues seemingly opposite, were happily blended in his disposition: persevering, yet flexible; moderate, yet enterprizing; just, yet merciful; stern in command, yet gentle in conversation. Nature also, as if desirous that such admirable qualities of mind should be set off to the greatest advantage, had bestowed on him all bodily accomplishments, vigour, dignity, and an engaging open countenance.

His second son, Edward, succeeded him on the throne. To him succeeded Athelstan, his natural son, the illegitimacy of his birth not being then deemed a sufficient obstacle to his inheriting the crown. He died at Gloucester, after a reign of sixteen years, and was succeeded by his brother Edmund, who, like the rest of his predecessors, met with disturbance from the Northumbrians on his accession to the throne, but his activity soon defeated their attempts. The resentment this monarch bore to men of an abandoned way of living, was the cause of his death. He was killed by Leoff, a robber, at a feast, where this villain had the insolence to intrude into the king's presence. His brother Eldred was appointed to succeed, and like his predecessors, this monarch found himself at the head of a rebellious and refractory people. Eldred implicitly submitted to the directions of Dunstan the monk, both in church and state; and the kingdom was in a fair way of being turned into a papal province, by this zealous eccle-

siastic; but he was checked in the midst of his career by the death of the king, who died of a quinsy, in the tenth year of his reign.

Edwy, his nephew, who ascended the throne, his own sons being yet unfit to govern, was a prince of great personal accomplishments, and of a martial disposition. But he was now come to the government of the kingdom in which he had an enemy to contend with, against whom military virtues could be of little service. Dunstan, who had governed during the former reign, was resolved to omit nothing of his authority in this; and Edwy, immediately upon his accession, found himself involved in a quarrel with the monks, whose rage neither his accomplishments nor his virtues could mitigate.

Among other instances of their cruelty, the following is recorded; There was a lady of the royal blood, named Elgiva, whose beauty had made a strong impression upon the young monarch's heart. He had even ventured to marry her, contrary to the advice of his councellors, as she was within the degrees of affinity prohibited by the canon law. On the day of his coronation, while his nobility were giving a loose to the more noisy pleasures of wine and festivity in the great hall, Edwy retired to his wife's apartment, where in company with her mother, he enjoyed the more pleasing satisfaction of her conversation. Dunstan no sooner perceived his absence, than conjecturing the reason, he rushed furiously into the apartment, and upbraiding him with all the bitterness of ecclesiastical rancour, dragged him forth in the most outrageous manner. Dunstan, it seems, was not without his enemies, for the king was advised to punish this insult, by bringing him to account for the money with which he had been intrusted during the last reign. This account the haughty monk refused to give in; and was, therefore, deprived of all the ecclesiastical and civil emoluments of which he had been in possession, and banished the kingdom. His exile only served to increase the reputation of his sanctity with the people; among the rest Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, was so far transported with the spirit of party, that he pronounced a divorce between Edwy and Elgiva. The king was unable to resist the indignation of the church, and consented to surrender his beautiful wife to its fury. Accordingly Odo, sent into the palace a party of soldiers, who seized the queen; and by his orders branded her on the face with a hot iron. Not contented with this cruel vengeance, they carried her by force into Ireland,

and there commanded her to remain in perpetual exile. This injunction, however, was too distressing for that faithful woman to comply with: for being cured of her wound, and having obliterated the marks which had been made to deface her beauty, she once more ventured to return to the king, whom she still regarded as her husband. But she was taken prisoner by a party whom the archbishop had appointed to observe her conduct, and was put to death in the most cruel manner; the sinews of her legs being cut, and her body mangled, she was thus left to expire in the greatest agony. In the mean time a secret revolt against Edwy became almost general: and Dunstan put himself at the head of the party. The malcontents at last proceeded to open rebellion, and having placed Edgar, the king's younger brother, a boy of about thirteen years of age, at their head, they soon put him in possession of all the northern parts of the kingdom. Edwy's power and the number of his adherents, every day declining, he was at last obliged to consent to a partition of the kingdom; but his death, which happened soon after, freed his enemies from all farther inquietude, and gave Edgar peaceable possession of the government.

Edgar being placed on the throne by the influence of the monks, affected to be entirely guided by their directions in all his succeeding transactions, and little worthy of notice is mentioned of him, except his amour with Elfrida, which is of too singular a nature to be omitted. Edgar had long heard of the beauty of a young lady, whose name was Elfrida, daughter of the earl of Devonshire; but, unwilling to credit common fame in this particular, he sent Ethelwald, his favourite friend, to see, and inform him if Elfrida was indeed that incomparable woman report had described her. Ethelwald arriving at the earl's, had no sooner cast his eyes upon that nobleman's daughter, than he became desperately enamoured of her himself. Such was the violence of his passion, that forgetting his master's intentions, he solicited only his own interest, and demanded for himself the beautiful Elfrida from her father in marriage. The favourite of a king was not likely to find a refusal; the earl gave his consent, and their nuptials were performed in private. Upon his return to court, which was shortly after, he assured the king that her riches alone, and her high quality, had been the cause of her fame, and he appeared amazed how the world could talk so much and so unjustly of her charms. The king was satisfied, and no longer

felt any curiosity, while Ethelwald secretly triumphed in his address. When he had, by this deceit, weaned the king from his purpose, he took an opportunity, after some time, to turn the conversation on Elfrida, representing, that, though the fortune of the earl of Devonshire's daughter would be a trifle to a king, it would be an immense acquisition to a needy subject. He therefore humbly entreated permission to pay his addresses to her, as she was the richest heiress in the kingdom. A request so seemingly reasonable, was readily complied with; Ethelwald returned to his wife, and their nuptials were solemnized in public. His greatest care, however, was employed in keeping her from court; and he took every precaution to prevent her from appearing before a king so susceptible of love, while she was so capable of inspiring that passion. But it was impossible to keep his treachery long concealed. Edgar was soon informed of the whole transaction; but dissembling his resentment, he took occasion to visit that part of the country where this miracle of beauty was detained, accompanied by Ethelwald, who reluctantly attended him thither. Upon coming near the lady's habitation, he told him, that he had a curiosity to see his wife, of whom he had formerly heard so much, and desired to be introduced as his acquaintance. Ethelwald, thunderstruck at the proposal, did all in his power, but in vain, to dissuade him. All he could obtain, was permission to go before, on pretence of preparing for the king's reception. On his arrival, he fell at his wife's feet, confessing what he had done to be possessed of her charms, and conjuring her to conceal as much as possible her beauty from the king, who was but too susceptible of its power. Elfrida, little obliged to him for a passion that deprived her of a crown, promised compliance; but, prompted either by vanity or revenge, adorned her person with the most exquisite art, and called up all her beauty on the occasion. The event answered her expectations; the king no sooner saw, then he loved her, and was instantly resolved to obtain her. The better to effect his intentions, he concealed his passion from the husband, and took leave with a seeming indifference; but his revenge was not the less certain and fatal. Ethelwald was some time after sent into Northumberland, upon pretence of urgent affairs, and was found murdered in a wood by the way. Some say he was stabbed by the king's own hand; some, that he only commanded the assassination; however this be, Elfrida was invited soon after

to court, by the king's own order, and their nuptials were performed with the usual solemnity. The monarch died after a reign of sixteen years, in the thirty-third year of his age, being succeeded by his son, Edward, whom he had by his first marriage with the daughter of the earl of Ordmer.

Edward, surnamed the Martyr, was made king by the interest of the monks, and lived about four years after his accession. In his reign there is nothing remarkable, if we except his tragical and memorable end. Hunting one day, near Corfe Castle, where Elfrida, his mother-in-law, resided, he thought it his duty to pay her a visit, although he was not attended by any of his retiuue. There, desiring some liquor to be brought him, as he was thirsty, while he was yet holding the cup to his head, one of Elfrida's domestics, instructed for that purpose, stabbed him in the back. The king, finding himself wounded, put spurs to his horse: but fainting with the loss of blood, he fell from the saddle, and his foot sticking in the stirrup, he was dragged along by his horse till he died.

Ethelred the second, the son of Edgar and Elfrida, succeeded; a weak and irresolute monarch, incapable of governing a kingdom, or of providing for its safety. During his reign, the old and terrible enemies, the Danes, were daily gaining ground. The inexperience of Ethelred appeared to give a favourable opportunity for renewing their depredations; and, accordingly, they landed on several parts of the coast spreading their usual terror and devastation. As they lived indiscriminately among the English, a resolution was taken for a general massacre; and Ethelred, by a policy incident to weak princes, embraced the cruel resolution of putting them all to the sword. This plot was carried on with such secrecy, that it was executed in one day, and all the Danes in England were destroyed without mercy. But this massacre, so perfidious in the contriving, and so cruel in the execution, only prepared the way for greater calamities.

While the English were yet congratulating each other upon their deliverance from an inveterate enemy, Sweyn, king of Denmark, who had been informed of their treacherous cruelties, appeared off the western coast with a large fleet, meditating slaughter, and furious with revenge. Ethelred was obliged to fly into Normandy, and the whole country thus came under the power of Sweyn, his victorious rival.

Canute, afterwards surnamed the Great, succeeded Sweyn as king of Denmark, and also as general of the Danish forces in England. The contest between him and Edmund Ironside, successor to Ethelred, was managed with great obstinacy and perseverance. The first battle that was fought appeared undecisive; a second followed, in which the Danes were victorious; but Edmund still having interest enough to bring a third army into the field, the Danish and English nobility, equally harassed by these convulsions, obliged their kings to come to a compromise, and to divide the kingdom between them by treaty. Canute reserved to himself the northern parts of the kingdom, the southern parts were left to Edmund; but this prince being murdered about a month after the treaty by his two chamberlains, at Oxford, Canute was left in peaceable possession of the whole kingdom.

Canute is represented by some historians as one of the first characters in those barbarous ages. The piety of the latter part of his life, and the resolute valour of the former, were topics that filled the mouths of his courtiers with flattery and praise. They even affected to think his power uncontrolable, and that all things would be obedient to his command. Canute, sensible of their adulation, is said to have taken the following method to reprove them:—He ordered his chair to be set on the sea-shore, while the tide was coming in, and commanded the sea to retire. "Thou art under my dominion," cried he; "the land upon which I sit is mine; I charge thee, therefore, to approach no farther, nor dare to wet the feet of thy sovereign." He feigned to sit some time in expectation of submission, till the waves began to surround him: then turning to his courtiers, he observed that the titles of Lord and Master belonged only to Him, whom both earth and seas were ready to obey. Thus feared and respected, he lived many years, honoured with the surname of Great for his power, but deserving it still more for his virtues. He died at Shaftsbury, in the nineteenth year of his reign, leaving behind him three sons, Sweyn, Harold, and Hardicanute. Sweyn was crowned king of Norway; Hardicanute was put in possession of Denmark; and Harold succeeded his father on the English throne.

To Harold succeeded his brother Hardicanute, whose title was readily acknowledged both by the Danes and the English; and upon his arrival from the continent, he was received with the most extravagant demonstrations of joy: but his violent

and unjust government was of short duration: he died two years after his accession, in consequence of excess at the marriage of a Danish lord.

The disorders of the Danish monarchs once more induced the English to place a monarch of the Saxon line upon the throne: and accordingly, Edward, surnamed the Confessor, was by the general consent, crowned king; and having long groaned under a foreign yoke, they now set no bounds to their joy, at finding the line of their ancient monarchs restored. As he had been bred in the Norman court, he shewed, in every instance, a predilection for the customs, laws, and even the natives of that country; and among the rest of his faults, though he had married Editha, the daughter of Godwin, yet, either from mistaken piety, or fixed aversion, during his whole reign he abstained from her bed. Thus having no legitimate issue, and being wholly engrossed during the continuance of a long reign, with the visions of superstition, he was at last surprised by sickness, which brought him to his end, on the 5th of January, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign.

Harold, the son of a popular nobleman, whose name was Godwin, and whose intrigues and virtues seemed to give a right to his pretensions, ascended the throne without any opposition. But neither his valour, his justice, nor his popularity, was able to secure him from the misfortunes attendant upon an ill-grounded title. His pretensions were opposed by William, duke of Normandy, who insisted that the crown of right belonged to him, it being bequeathed to him by Edward the Confessor.

William, who was afterwards called the Conqueror, was the natural son of Robert, duke of Normandy. His mother's name was Arlette, a beautiful maid of Falaize, whom Robert fell in love with as she stood gazing at the door whilst he passed through the town. William, who was the offspring of this amour, owed a part of his greatness to his birth, but still more to his own personal merit. His body was vigorous, his mind capacious and noble, and his courage not to be repressed by apparent danger. Upon coming to his dukedom of Normandy, though yet very young, he on all sides opposed his rebellious subjects, and repressed foreign invaders, while his valour and conduct prevailed in every action. The tranquillity which he had thus established in his dominions, induced him to extend his views; and some overtures made him by

Edward the Confessor, in the latter part of his reign, who was wavering in the choice of a successor, inflamed his ambition with a desire of succeeding to the English throne. The pope himself was not behind the rest in favouring his pretensions; and either influenced by the apparent justice of his claims, or by the hopes of extending the authority of the church, he immediately pronounced Harold a usurper. With such favourable incentives, William soon found himself at the head of a chosen army of sixty thousand men, all equipped in the most warlike and splendid manner. It was in the beginning of summer, that he embarked this powerful body on board a fleet of three hundred sail; and, after some small opposition from the weather landed at Pevensey, on the coast of Sussex, with resolute tranquillity.

Harold, who seemed resolved to defend his right to the crown, and retain that sovereignty which he had received from the people, who had only a right to bestow it, was now returning, flushed with conquest from defeating the Norwegians, who had invaded the kingdom, with all the forces he had employed in that expedition, and all he could invite or collect in the country through which he passed. His army was composed of active and valiant troops, in high spirits, strongly attached to their king, and eager to engage. On the other hand, the army of William consisted of the flower of all the continent, and had long been inured to danger. The men of Bretagne, Bologne, Flanders, Poictou, Maine, Orleans, France, and Normandy, were all voluntarily united under his command. England never before, nor ever since, saw two such armies, drawn up to dispute its crown. The day before the battle, William sent an offer to Harold to decide the quarrel between them by single combat, and thus to spare the blood of thousands; but Harold refused, and said, he would leave it to the God of armies to determine. Both armies, therefore, that night pitched in sight of each other, expecting the dawning of the next day with impatience. The English passed the night in songs and feasting; the Normans in devotion and prayer.

The next morning at seven, as soon as day appeared, both armies were drawn up in array against each other. Harold appeared in the centre of his forces, leading on his army on foot, that his men might be more encouraged by seeing their king exposed to an equality of danger. William fought on horseback, leading on his army, that moved at once, singing the

song of Roland, one of the famous chiefs of their country. The Normans began the fight with their cross-bows, which, at first, galled and surprised the English, and as their ranks were close, their arrows did great execution. But soon they came to closer fight, and the English, with their bills, hewed down their adversaries with great slaughter. Confusion was spreading among the ranks, when William, who found himself on the brink of destruction, hastened with a select band to the relief of his forces. His presence restored the suspense of battle; he was seen in every place, endeavouring to pierce the ranks of the enemy, and had three horses slain under him. At length, perceiving that the English line continued impenetrable, he pretended to give ground, which as he expected, drew the enemy from their ranks, and he was instantly ready to take advantage of their disorder. Upon a signal given, the Normans immediately returned to the charge with greater fury than before, broke the English troops, and pursued them to a rising ground. It was in this extremity, that Harold was seen flying from rank to rank, rallying and inspiring his troops with vigour; and though he had toiled all day, till near nightfall, in the front of his Kentishmen, yet he still seemed unabated in force or courage, keeping his men to the post of honour. Once more, therefore, the victory seemed to turn against the Normans, and they fell in great numbers, so that the fierceness and obstinacy of this memorable battle was often renewed by the courage of the leaders, whenever that of the soldiers began to slacken. Fortune, at length, determined a victory that valour was unable to decide. Harold making a furious onset at the head of his troops against the Norman heavy armed infantry, was shot in the brain by an arrow; and his two valiant brothers, fighting by his side, shared the same fate. He fell with his sword in his hand, amidst heaps of slain; and after the battle the royal corpse could hardly be distinguished among the dead.

This was the end of the Saxon monarchy in England, which had continued for more than six hundred years.

CHAPTER IV.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

A. D. 1066—1087.

As soon as William passed the Thames, at Wallingford, Stigand, the primate, made submission to him in the name

of the clergy; and before he came within sight of the city, all the chief nobility came into his camp, and declared an intention of yielding to his authority. William was glad of being thus peaceably put in possession of a throne, which several of his predecessors had not gained without repeated victories.

But in order to give his invasion all the sanction possible, he was crowned at Westminster by the Archbishop of York, and took the oath usual in the times of the Saxon and Danish kings, which was, to protect and defend the church, to observe the laws of the realm, and to govern the people with impartiality. Having thus, by a mixture of vigour and lenity, brought the English to an entire submission, he resolved to return to the continent, there to enjoy the congratulation of his ancient subjects; but his absence in England produced the most fatal effects. His officers, being no longer controlled by his justice, thought this a fit opportunity for extortion; while the English, no longer awed by his presence, thought it the happiest occasion for vindicating their freedom.

The English had entered into a conspiracy to cut off their invaders, and fixed the day for their intended massacre, which was to be Ash-Wednesday, during the time of divine service, when all the Normans would be unarmed as penitents according to the discipline of the times. But William's return quickly disconcerted all their schemes: and from that time he began to lose all confidence in his English subjects, and to regard them as inveterate and irreconcilable enemies. Having already raised a number of fortresses in the kingdom, to check the tumultuous efforts of a discontented multitude, he determined to treat them as a conquered nation; to indulge his own avarice, and that of his followers, by numerous confiscations, and to secure his power by humbling all who were able to make any resistance. He proceeded to confiscate all the estates of the English gentry, and to grant them liberally to his Norman followers. Thus all the ancient and honourable families were reduced to beggary, and the English found themselves entirely excluded from every hope of preferment; and, to keep the clergy as much as possible in his interests, he appointed none but his own countrymen to the most considerable church dignities; and even displaced Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury, upon some frivolous pretences.

William having crushed several conspiracies, and by punishing the malcontents, thus secured the peace of his dominions, now expected rest from his labours: and finding none either willing or powerful enough to oppose him, he hoped that the end of his reign would be marked with prosperity and peace. But he found enemies where he least expected them, for his last troubles were excited by his own children, from the opposing of whom he could expect to reap neither glory nor gain. He had three sons, Robert, William, and Henry, besides several daughters. Robert, his eldest son, surnamed Curthose, from the shortness of his legs, inherited all the bravery of his family and nation, but was rather bold than prudent; and was often heard to express his jealousy of his two brothers, William, and Henry. These, by greater assiduity, had wrought upon the credulity and affections of the king, and consequently were the most obnoxious to Robert, whose resentful mind soon found or made a cause for an open rupture. The princes were one day in sport together, and in the idle petulance of play, took it into their head to throw water upon their elder brother, as he passed through the court, on leaving their apartment. Robert, all alive to suspicion, quickly turned this frolic into a studied indignity; and having these jealousies still farther inflamed by one of his favourites, he drew his sword, and ran up stairs with intent to take revenge. The whole castle was quickly filled with tumult; and it was not without some difficulty that the king himself was able to appease it. But he could not allay the animosity which, from that moment, prevailed in his family. Robert, attended by several of his confederates, withdrew to Rouen that very night, hoping to surprise the castle; but his design was defeated by the governor.

The flame being thus kindled, the popular character of the prince, and a sympathy of manners, engaged all the young nobility of Normandy and Maine, as well as of Anjou and Brittany, to espouse his quarrel: even his mother, it is said, aided him in this obstinate resistance, by private encouragement. This unnatural contest continued for several years to inflame the Norman state; and William was at last obliged to have recourse to England for supporting his authority against his son. Accordingly, drawing an army of English men together, he led them over to Normandy, where he soon compelled Robert and his adherents to quit the field, and he was quickly reinstated in all his dominions.

William had scarcely put an end to this transaction, when he felt a very severe blow in the death of Matilda, his queen; and received information of a general insurrection in Maine, the nobility of which had been always averse to the Norman government. Upon his arrival on the continent, he found that the insurgents had been secretly assisted and excited by the king of France, whose policy consisted in lessening the Norman power. William's displeasure was not a little increased by the account he received of some railleries which that monarch had thrown out against him. It seems that William, who was become corpulent, had been detained in bed some time by sickness; and Philip was heard to say, that he only lay-in of a big belly. This so provoked the English monarch that he sent him word, he should soon be up, and would, at his churching, present him such a number of tapers, as would set the kingdom of France in a flame.

In order to perform this promise, he levied a strong army, and entering the Isle of France, destroyed and burned all the villages and houses without opposition, and took the town of Mante, which he reduced to ashes. But the progress of these hostilities was stopped by an accident which shortly after put an end to William's life. His horse chancing to place his forefeet on some hot ashes, plunged so violently, that the rider was thrown forward and bruised upon the pummel of the saddle to such a degree, that he suffered a relapse, of which he died shortly after, at a little village near Rouen.

CHAPTER V.

WILLIAM RUFUS.

A. D. 1087—1100.

WILLIAM, surnamed Rufus, from the colour of his hair, was appointed, by the king's will, his successor, while the elder son, Robert, was left in possession of Normandy. Nevertheless, the Norman barons were, from the beginning, displeased at the division of the empire by the late king; they eagerly desired a union as before, and looked upon Robert as the proper owner of the whole. A powerful conspiracy was, therefore, carried on against William; and Odo, the late king's brother, undertook to conduct it to maturity.

William, sensible of the danger that threatened him, endeavoured to gain the affections of the native English, whom he

prevailed upon, by promises of preference in the distribution of his favours, to espouse his interests. He was soon at the head of a numerous army, and shewed himself ready to oppose all who should dispute his pretensions. In the meantime Robert, instead of employing his money in levies to support his friends in England, squandered it away in idle expenses, and unmerited benefits, so that he procrastinated his departure till the opportunity was lost; while William exerted himself with incredible activity, to dissipate the confederacy before his brother could arrive. Nor was this difficult to effect; the appearance of the king soon reduced the conspirators to implore his mercy. He granted them their lives, but confiscated all their estates, and banished them the kingdom.

A new breach was made sometime after between the brothers, in which Rufus found means to encroach still farther upon Robert's possessions. Every conspiracy thus detected, served to enrich the king, who took care to apply to his own use those treasures which had been amassed for the purpose of dethroning him.

But the memory of these transient broils and unsuccessful treasons was now totally eclipsed by one of the most noted enterprises that ever adorned the annals of nations, or excited the attention of mankind; I mean the Crusades, which were now first projected. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens in Picardy, a man of great zeal, courage, and piety, had made a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem, and beheld, with indignation, the cruel manner in which the christians were treated by the infields who were in possession of that place. He preached the crusade over Europe by the pope's permission, and men of all ranks flew to arms with the utmost alacrity, to rescue the Holy Land from the infidels; and each bore the sign of the cross upon his right shoulder, as a mark of his devotion to the cause. In the midst of this universal ardour that was diffused over Europe, men were not entirely forgetful of their temporal interests: for some hoping for a more magnificent settlement in the soft regions of Asia, sold their European property for whatever they could obtain, contented with receiving any thing for what they were predetermined to relinquish. Among the princes who felt and acknowledged this general spirit of enterprize, was Robert, duke of Normandy. The Crusade was entirely adapted to his inclinations and his circumstances; he was brave, zealous, covetous of glory, poor, harassed by insurrections, and, what was more than all, naturally fond of

change. In order therefore, to supply money, to defray the necessary charges of so expensive an undertaking, he offered to mortgage his dukedom in Normandy to his brother Rufus for a stipulated sum of money. This sum, which was no greater than ten thousand marks, was readily promised by Rufus, whose ambition was upon the watch to seize every advantage.

But though the cession of Maine and Normandy greatly increased the king's territories, they added but little to his real power, as his new subjects were composed of men of independent spirits, more ready to dispute than to obey his commands. Many were the revolts and insurrections which he was obliged to quell in person; and no sooner was one conspiracy suppressed, than another arose to give him fresh disquietude.

However, Rufus proceeded, careless of approbation or censure, and only intent upon extending his dominions, either by purchase or conquest. The earl of Poictiers and Guienne, inflamed with the desire of going upon the Crusade, had gathered an immense multitude for that expedition, but wanted money. He had recourse, therefore, to Rufus, and offered to mortgage all his dominions, which the king accepted with his usual avidity; and had prepared a fleet and an army, in order to take possession of the rich provinces thus consigned to his trust. But an accident put an end to all his ambitious projects; he was shot by an arrow that Sir Walter Tyrrell discharged at a deer in the New Forest, which glancing from a tree, struck the king to the heart. He dropt dead instantaneously; while the innocent author of his death, terrified at the accident, hastened to the sea-shore, embarked for France, and joined the Crusade.

CHAPTER VI.

HENRY I. SURNAMED BEAUCLERC.

A. D. 1100—1135.

Henry, the late king's younger brother, who had been hunting in the New Forest, when Rufus was slain, took the earliest advantage of the occasion, and hastening to Winchester, resolved to secure the royal treasure, which he knew to be the best assistant in seconding his aims. The barons, as well as the people, acquiesced in a claim which they were

unprovided to resist. To ingratiate himself with the people, he expelled from court all the ministers of his brother's debauchery and arbitrary power. One thing only remained to confirm his claims without danger of a rival. The English remembered their Saxon monarchs with gratitude, and beheld them excluded the throne with regret. There still remained some of the descendants of that favourite line; and, among others, Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling, who having declined all pretensions to royalty, was bred up in a convent, and had actually taken the veil. Upon her Henry first fixed his eyes as a proper consort, by whose means the long breach between the Saxon and Norman interests would be finally united. It only remained to get over the scruple of her being a nun; but this a council, devoted to his interests, readily admitted; and the nuptials were celebrated with great pomp.

It was at this unfavourable juncture that Robert returned from abroad, and after taking possession of his native dominions, laid his claim to the crown of England. But proposals for an accommodation being made, it was stipulated that Robert, upon the payment of a certain sum, should resign his pretensions to England; and that, if either of the princes died without issue, the other should succeed to his dominions. This treaty being ratified, the armies on each side were disbanded; and Robert, having lived two months in harmony with his brother, returned to his own dominions.

But Robert's indiscretion soon renderd him unfit to govern any state; he was totally averse to business, and only studious of the more splendid amusements or employments of life. His servants pillaged him without compunction; and he is described as lying whole days in bed for want of clothes, of which they had robbed him. His subjects were treated still more deplorably; for being under the command of petty and rapacious tyrants, who plundered them without mercy, the whole country was become a scene of violence and depredation. It was in this miserable exigence, that the Normans at length had recourse to Henry, from whose wise administration of his own dominions they expected a similar state of prosperity, should he take the reins of theirs. Henry very readily promised to redress their grievances, as he knew it would be the direct method to second his own ambition. The year ensuing, therefore, he landed in Normandy with a strong army; took some of the principal

towns; and a battle ensuing, Robert's forces were totally overthrown, and he himself taken prisoner, with near ten thousand of his men, and all the considerable barons who had adhered to his misfortunes. This victory was followed by the final reduction of Normandy, while Henry returned in triumph to England, leading with him his captive brother, whom he detained a prisoner during the remainder of his life, which was no less than twenty-eight years; and he died in the Castle of Cardiff, in Glamorganshire. It is even said by some, that he was deprived of his sight by a red-hot copper bason applied to his eyes; while his brother attempted to stifle the reproaches of his conscience, by founding the abbey of Reading, which was then considered as a sufficient atonement for every degree of barbarity.

Fortune now seemed to smile upon Henry, and promise a long succession of felicity. He was in peaceable possession of two powerful states, and had a son who was acknowledged his undisputed heir, arrived at his eighteenth year, whom he loved most tenderly. His daughter, Matilda, was also married to the Emperor, Henry V. of Germany. All his prospects, however, were at once clouded by unforeseen misfortunes and accidents. The king, from the facility with which he usurped the crown, dreading that his family might be subverted with the same ease, took care to have his son recognized as his successor by the states of England, and carried him over to Normandy to receive the homage of the barons of that duchy. After performing this requisite ceremony, Henry returning triumphantly to England, brought with him a numerous retinue of the chief nobility, who seemed to share in his successes. In one of the vessels of the fleet, his son, and several young noblemen, the companions of his pleasures, went together to render the passage more agreeable. The king set sail from Barfleur, and was soon carried by a fair wind out of sight of land. The prince was detained by some accident; and his sailors, as well as their captain, Fitz-Stephen, having spent the interval in drinking, became so disorderly, that they ran the ship upon a rock, and immediately it was dashed to pieces. The prince was put into the boat, and might have escaped, had he not been called back by the cries of Maude, his natural sister. He was at first conveyed out of danger himself, but could not leave a person so dear to perish without an effort to save her. He, therefore, prevailed upon his sailors to row back and take

her in. The approach of the boat giving several others, who had been left upon the wreck, the hopes of saving their lives, numbers leaped in, and the whole went to the bottom. Above a hundred and forty young noblemen, of the principal families of England and Normandy, were lost on this occasion. A butcher of Rouen was the only person on board who escaped; he clung to the mast, and was taken up the next morning by some fishermen. Fitz-Stephen, the captain, while the butcher was thus buffeting the waves for his life, swam up to him, and inquired if the prince was yet living; when being told that he had perished, Then I will not outlive him, said the captain, and immediately sunk to the bottom. The shrieks of these unfortunate people were heard on the shore; and the noise even reached the king's ship, but the cause was then unknown. Henry entertained hopes for three days, that his son had put into some distant port in England; but when certain intelligence of the calamity was brought him, he fainted away, and was never seen to smile from that moment to the day of his death, which followed some time after at St. Dennis, a little town in Normandy, from eating too plentifully of lampreys, a dish he was particularly fond of. He died in the sixty-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign, leaving by will his daughter Matilda heiress of all his dominions.

CHAPTER VII.

STEPHEN.

A. D. 1135—1154.

No sooner was the king known to be dead, than Stephen son of Adela, the king's sister, and count of Blois, conscious of his power and influence, resolved to secure to himself the possession of what he so long desired. He therefore hastened from Normandy, and arriving at London, was immediately saluted king by all the lower ranks of people. His next step was to gain over the clergy; and, for that purpose, his brother, the bishop of Winchester, exerted all his influence among them with good success.

The first acts of a usurper are always popular. Stephen, in order to secure his tottering throne, passed a charter, granting several privileges to the different orders of the state. To the nobility, a permission to hunt in their own forests; to the

clergy, a speedy filling of vacant benefices; and to the people, restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor. To fix himself still more securely, he took possession of the royal treasures at Winchester, and had his title ratified by the pope with a part of the money.

Matilda, however, asserting her claim to the crown, landed upon the coast of Sussex, assisted by Robert, earl of Gloucester, natural son of the late king. The whole of Matilda's retinue, upon this occasion amounted to no more than a hundred and forty knights, who immediately took possession of Arundel castle; but she soon increased the number of her partizans, and her forces every day seemed to gain ground. Meantime Stephen, being assured of her arrival, flew to besiege Arundel, where she had taken refuge, and where she was protected by the queen dowager, who secretly favoured her pretensions. This fortress was too feeble to promise a long defence, and would have been soon taken, had it not been represented to the king, that as it was a castle belonging to the queen dowager, it would be an infringement on the respect due to her to attempt taking it by force. There was a spirit of generosity mixed with the rudeness of the times that unaccountably prevailed in many transactions. Stephen permitted Matilda to come forth in safety, and had her conveyed with security to Bristol, another fortress equally strong with that from whence he permitted her to retire. It would be tedious to relate the various skirmishes on either side, in pursuance of their respective pretensions; it will suffice to say, that Matilda's forces increased every day; and a victory gained by the queen threw Stephen from the throne, and exalted Matilda in his room, who was crowned at Winchester with all imaginable solemnity.

Matilda, however, affected to treat the nobility with a degree of disdain, to which they had long been unaccustomed; so that the fickle nation once more began to pity their deposed king. The bishop of Winchester fomented these discontents; and when he found the people ripe for a tumult, detached a party of his friends and vassals to block up the city of London, where the queen then resided, and measures were taken no instigate the Londoners to a revolt, and to seize her person. Matilda, having timely notice of this conspiracy, fled to Winchester, whither the bishop, still her secret enemy, followed her. His party was soon sufficient to bid the queen open defiance; and to besiege her in the very place where she

first received his benediction. There she continued for some time; but the town being pressed by famine, she was obliged to escape, while her brother, the earl of Gloucester, endeavouring to follow, was taken prisoner, and exchanged for Stephen, who still continued a captive. Thus a sudden revolution once more took place: Matilda was deposed, and obliged to seek for safety in Oxford, while Stephen was again recognized as king.

But he was now to enter the lists with a new opponent Henry, the son of Matilda, who had now reached his sixteenth year, and gave the greatest hopes of being one day a valiant leader, a consummate politician. With the wishes of the people in his favour, he resolved to reclaim his hereditary kingdom, and to dispute once more Stephen's usurped pretensions; and accordingly made an invasion on England, where he was immediately joined by almost all the barons of the kingdom. Stephen tried every method to anticipate the purpose of this invasion; but finding it impossible, he was obliged to have recourse to treaty. It was therefore agreed that Stephen should reign during his life; and that justice should be administered in his name: that Henry should, on Stephen's death, succeed to the kingdom: and William, Stephen's son, should inherit Boulogne, and his patrimonial estate. After all the barons had sworn to this treaty, which filled the whole kingdom with joy, Henry evacuated England; and Stephen returned to the peaceable enjoyment of his throne. His reign, however, was soon after terminated by his death, which happened about a year after the treaty at Canterbury, where he was interred.

CHAPTER III.

HENRY II.

A. D. 1154—1189.

THE first act of Henry's government gave the people a happy omen of his future wise administration. Conscious of his power, he began to correct those abuses, and to resume those privileges, which had been extorted from the weakness or the credulity of his predecessors. He immediately dismissed all those mercenary soldiers who committed infinite disorders in the nation. He resumed many of those benefactions which had been made to churches and

monasteries in the former reigns. He gave charters to several towns, by which the citizens claimed their freedom and privileges, independent of any superior but himself. These charters were the ground-work of English liberty. The struggles which had before this time been, whether the king, or the barons, or the clergy, should be despotic over the people, now began to assume a new aspect; and a further order, namely, that of the more opulent of the people, began to claim a share in the administration. Thus was the feudal government at first impaired; and liberty began to be more equally diffused throughout the nation.

Henry being thus become the most powerful prince of his age, the undisputed monarch of England, possessed of more than a third of France, might naturally be expected to reign with very little opposition for the future. But it happened otherwise.

The famous Thomas à Becket, the first man of English extraction who had, since the Norman conquest, risen to any share of power, was the son of a citizen of London. Having received his early education in the schools of that metropolis, he resided some time at Paris; and on his return became clerk in the sheriff's office. From that humble station he rose through the gradations of office, until at last he was made archbishop of Canterbury. No sooner was he fixed in this high station, which rendered him for life the second person in the kingdom than he endeavoured to retrieve the character of sanctity, which his former levities might have appeared to oppose. He was in his person the most mortified man that could be seen. He wore sackcloth next his skin. He changed it so seldom, that it was filled with dirt and vermin. His usual diet was bread, his drink water; which he rendered farther unpalatable by the mixture of unsavoury herbs. His back was mangled by frequent discipline. He every day washed on his knees the feet of thirteen beggars. Thus pretending to sancity, he set up as a defender of the privileges of the clergy, which had for a long time become enormous, and which it was Henry's aim to abridge.

An opportunity soon offered, that gave him a popular pretext for beginning his intended reformation. A man in holy orders had debauched the daughter of a gentleman in Worcestershire; and then murdered the father, to prevent the effects of his resentment. The atrociousness of the crime

produced a spirit of indignation among the people: and the king insisted that the assassin should be tried by the civil magistrate. This Becket opposed, alleging the privileges of the church.

In order to determine this matter, the king summoned a general council of the nobility and prelates at Clarendon, to whom he submitted this great and important affair, and desired their concurrence. These councils seem at that time convened rather to give authenticity to the king's decrees, than to enact laws that were to bind their posterity. A number of regulations were there drawn up, which were afterwards well known under the title of the Constitutions of Clarendon, and were then voted without opposition. By these regulations it was enacted, that clergymen, accused of any crime, should be tried in the civil courts; that laymen should not be tried in the spiritual courts, except by legal reputable witnesses. These, with some others of less consequence, or implied in the above, to the number of sixteen, were readily subscribed to by all the bishops present: Becket himself, who at first shewed some reluctance, added his name to the number. But Alexander, who was then pope, condemned them in the strongest terms, and annulled them. This produced a contest between the king and Becket, who took part with his holiness, and, with an intrepidity peculiar to himself, arraying himself in his episcopal vestments, and with a cross in his hand, went forward to the king's palace, and entering the royal apartments, sat down, holding up the cross as his banner of protection. There he put himself, in the most solemn manner, under the protection of the supreme pontiff: and upon receiving a refusal to leave the kingdom, he secretly withdrew in disguise, and found means to pass over to the continent, where his intrepidity, joined to his apparent sanctity, gained him a very favourable reception.

The pope and he were not remiss to retort their fulminations, and to shake the very foundation of the king's authority. Becket compared himself to Christ, who had been condemned by a lay tribunal; and who was crucified anew in the present oppressions under which the church laboured. He issued a censure, excommunicating the king's chief ministers by name, all that were concerned in sequestering the revenues of his see, and all who obeyed or favoured the Constitutions of Clarendon. Frequent attempts, indeed, were made towards an accommodation; but the mutual jea-

lousies that each bore to the other, and their anxiety not to lose the least advantage in the negociation, often protracted this desirable treaty.

At length, the mutual interests of both made a reconciliation necessary; but nothing could exceed the insolence with which Becket conducted himself upon his first landing in England. Instead of retiring quietly to his diocese, with that modesty which became a man just pardoned by his king, he made a progress through Kent, in all the splendour and magnificence of a sovereign pontiff. As he approached Southwark, the clergy, the laity, men of all ranks and ages, came forth to meet him, and celebrated his triumphal entry with hymns of joy. Thus confident of the voice and the hearts of the people, he began to launch forth his thunders against those who had been his former opposers. The archbishop of York, who had crowned Henry's eldest son in his absence, was the first against whom he denounced sentence of suspension. The bishops of London and Salisbury he actually excommunicated. One man he excommunicated for having spoken against him; and another, for having cut off the tail of one of his horses.

Henry was then in Normandy, while the primate was thus triumphantly parading through the kingdom; and it was not without the utmost indignation that he received information of his turbulent insolence. When the suspended and excommunicated prelates arrived with their complaints, his anger knew no bounds. He broke forth in the most acrimonious expressions against that arrogant churchman, whom he had raised from the lowest station, to be the plague of his life, and the continued disturber of his government. The archbishop of York remarked to him, that so long as Becket lived, he could never expect to enjoy peace and tranquillity; and the king himself burst out into an exclamation, that he had no friends about him, or he wonld not so long have been exposed to the insults of that ungrateful hypocrite. These words induced four of his most resolute attendants to gratify their monarch's secret inclinations; and being joined by some assistants at the place of their meeting, they proceeded to Canterbury with all haste. Advancing directly to Becket's house, and entering his apartments, they reproached him very fiercely for the rashness and insolence of his conduct. During their altercation, the time approached for Becket to assist at vespers, whither he went unguarded, the conspirators following, and

preparing for their attempt. As soon as he had reached the altar, where it is just to think he aspired at the glory of martyrdom, they all fell upon him; and having cloven his head with repeated blows, he dropt down dead before the altar of St. Benedict, which was besmeared with his blood and brains.

Nothing could exceed the king's consternation upon receiving the first news of this prelate's catastrophe. He was instantly sensible that the murder would be ultimately imputed to him; and, in order to divert the minds of the people to a different object, he undertook an expedition against Ireland. The Irish were at that time in pretty much the same situation as the English had been, after the first invasion of the Saxons. They had been early converted to Christianity; and, for three or four centuries after, possessed a very large proportion of the learning of the times. Being undisturbed by foreign invasion, and perhaps too poor to invite the rapacity of conquerors, they enjoyed a peaceful life, which they gave up to piety, and such learning as was then thought necessary to promote it. Of their learning, their arts, their piety, and even their polished manners, too many monuments remain to this day for us to make the least doubt concerning them; but it is equally true, that in time they fell from these advantages; and their degenerate posterity, at the period we are now speaking of, were wrapt in the darkest barbarity.

At the time when Henry first planned the invasion of the island, it was divided into five principalities, namely, Leinster, Meath, Munster, Ulster, and Connaught; each governed by its respective monarch. As it had been usual for one or other of those to take the lead in their wars, he was denominated sole monarch of the kingdom, and possessed of a power resembling that of the early Saxon monarchs in England. Roderic O'Connor, king of Connaught, was then advanced to this dignity, and Dermot M'Morrogh was king of Leinster. This last named prince, a weak, licentious tyrant, had carried off and ravished the daughter of the king of Meath, who being strengthened by the alliance of the king of Connaught, invaded the ravisher's dominions, and expelled him from his kingdom. The prince, thus justly punished, had recourse to Henry, who was at that time in Guienne: and offered to hold his kingdom of the English crown, in case he recovered it by the king's assistance. Henry readily accepted the offer; but being at that time embarassed by more near interests, he only gave

Dermot letters patent, by which he empowered all his subjects to aid the Irish prince in the recovery of his dominions. Dermot, relying on this authority, returned to Bristol, where after some difficulty, he formed a treaty with Richard, surnamed Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, who agreed to reinstate him in his dominions, upon condition of his being married to his daughter Eva, and declared heir of all his territory. Being thus assured of assistance, he returned privately to Ireland, and concealed himself during the winter in the monastery of Ferns, which he had founded. Robert Fitz-Stephen was the first knight who was able, the ensuing spring, to fulfil his engagements, by landing with an hundred any thirty knights, sixty esquires, and three hundred archers. They were soon after joined by Maurice Pendergast, who about the same time brought over ten knights and sixty archers; and with this small body of forces they resolved on besieging Wexford, which was to be theirs by treaty. This town was quickly reduced: and the adventurers, being reinforced by another body of men to the amount of an hundred and fifty, under the command of Maurice Fitzgerald, composed an army that struck the barbarous inhabitants with awe. Roderic, the chief monarch of the island, ventured to oppose them, but he was defeated; and soon after the prince of Ossory was obliged to submit, and give hostages for his future conduct.

Dermot being thus reinstated in his hereditary dominions, soon began to conceive hopes of extending the limits of his power, and making himself master of Ireland. With these views, he endeavoured to expedite Strongbow; who, being personally prohibited by the king, was not yet come over. Dermot tried to inflame his ambition, by the glory of the conquest: and his avarice, by the advantages it would procure. He expatiated on the cowardice of the natives, and the certainty of his success. Strongbow first sent over Raymond, one of his retinue, with ten knights, and seventy archers: and receiving permission shortly after for himself, he landed with two hundred horse, and a hundred archers. All these English forces now joined together, he became irresistible; and though the whole number did not amount to a thousand, yet such was the barbarous state of the natives, that they were every where put to the rout. The city of Waterford quickly surrendered; Dublin was taken by assault; and Strongbow soon after marrying Eva, according to treaty,

became master of the kingdom of Leinster upon Dermot's decease.

The island being thus in a manner wholly subdued, for nothing was capable of opposing the further progress of the English arms, Henry became willing to share in person those honours which the adventurers had already secured. He, therefore, shortly after, landed in Ireland, at the head of five hundred knights, and some soldiers; not so much to conquer a disputed territory, as to take possession of a subjected kingdom. Thus, after a trifling effort, in which very little money was expended, and little blood shed, that beautiful island became an appendage to the English crown, and such it has ever since continued.

The joy which this conquest diffused was very great; but troubles of a domestic nature served to render the remaining part of Henry's life a scence of turbulence and disquietude. Among the few vices ascribed to this monarch, unlimited gallantry was one. Queen Eleanor, whom he had married from motives of ambition, and who had been divorced from her former royal consort for her incontinence, was long become disagreeable to Henry; and he sought in others those satisfactions he could not find with her. Among the number of his mistresses, Rosamond Clifford, better known by the name of Fair Rosamond, was the most remarkable. She is said to have been the most beautiful woman that was ever seen in England, and that Henry loved her with a long and faithful attachment.

In order to secure her from the resentment of his queen, who from having been formerly incontinent herself, now became jealous of his incontinence, he concealed her in a labyrinth in Woodstock park. But their intercourse was not so closely concealed but that it came to the queen's knowledge, who, guided by a clew of silk to her fair rival's retreat, obliged her, by holding a drawn dagger to her breast, to swallow poison. Whatever may be the veracity of this story, certain it is, that this haughty woman first sowed the seeds of dissension between the king and his children.

Young Henry, the king's eldest son, was taught to believe himself injured, when, upon being crowned as partner in the kingdom, he was not admitted into a share of the administration. His discontents were shared by his brothers Geoffry and Richard, whom the queen persuaded to assert their title to the territories assigned them. Queen Eleanor

herself was meditating an escape to the court of France, whither her sons had retired, when she was seized by the king's order, and put into confinement. Thus Henry saw all his long perspective of future happiness totally clouded; his sons scarce yet arrived to manhood, eager to share the spoils of their father's possessions: his queen warmly encouraging those undutiful princes in their rebellion, and many potentates of Europe not ashamed to lend them assistance to support their pretensions.

Henry, therefore, knowing the influence of superstition over the minds of the people, and perhaps apprehensive that a part of his troubles arose from the displeasure of Heaven, resolved to do penance at the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury, for that was the name given Becket upon his canonization. As soon as he came within sight of the Church of Canterbury, alighting from his horse, he walked barefoot towards the town, and prostrated himself before the shrine of the saint. Next day he received absolution; and, departing for London, was acquainted with the agreeable news of a victory over the Scots, obtained on the very day of his absolution.

From that time his affairs began to wear a better aspect: the barons, who had revolted, made instant submission, and England, in a few weeks, was restored to perfect tranquillity. Young Henry, who was ready to embark with a large army, finding disturbances quieted at home, abandoned all thoughts of the expedition, and died soon after, in the twenty-sixth year of his age, of a fever, at Martel, not without the deepest remorse for his undutiful conduct towards his father. Richard was now heir in his room; and soon discovered the same ardent ambition that had misled his elder brother.

A crusade having been once more projected, Richard, who could not bear to have even his father a partner in his victories, entered into a confederacy with the king of France, who promised to confirm him in those wishes, at which he so ardently aspired. By this Henry found himself obliged to give up all hopes of taking the cross, and compelled to enter upon a war with France and his eldest son. At last, however, a treaty was concluded, in which he was obliged to submit to many mortifying concessions. But still more so when, upon demanding a list of the barons whom it was stipulated he should pardon, he found his son John, his favourite child among the number. He had long borne an infirm state of

body with calm resignation; he had seen his children rebel without much emotion; but when he saw that child, whose interest always lay next to his heart, among the number of those who were in rebellion against him, he could no longer contain his indignation. . He broke out into expressions of the utmost despair; cursed the day in which he had received his miserable being; and bestowed on his ungrateful children a malediction which he never after could be prevailed upon to retract. The more his heart was disposed for friendship and affection the more he resented this barbarous return; and now, not having one corner in his heart where he could look for comfort, or fly for refuge from his conflicting passions, he lost all his former vivacity. A lingering fever, caused by a broken heart, soon after terminated his life and his miseries. He died at the castle of Chinon, near Saumur, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign; in the course of which he displayed all the abilities of a politician, all the sagacity of a legislator, and all the magnanimity of a hero.

CHAPTER IX.

RICHARD I. SURNAMED CŒUR DE LION.

A. D. 1180—1199.

Richard, upon his accession to the throne, was still inflamed with the desire of going upon the crusade; and having got together a sufficient supply for his undertaking; having even sold his superiority over the kingdom of Scotland, which had been acquired in the last reign, for a moderate sum, he set out for the Holy Land, whither he was impelled by repeated messages from the king of France, who was ready to embark in the same enterprise.

The first place of rendezvous for the two armies of England and France, was the plain of Vezelay, on the borders of Burgundy, where, when Richard and Philip arrived, they found their armies amounting to an hundred thousand fighting men. Here the French prince and the English entered into the most solemn engagement of mutual support; but having determined to conduct their armies to the Holy Land by sea, they were obliged by stress of weather to take shelter in Messina, the capital of Sicily, where they were detained during the whole winter. Richard took up his

quarters in the suburbs, and possessed himself of a small fort, which commanded the harbour. Philip quartered his troops in the town, and lived upon good terms with the Sicilian king. Many were the mistrusts and the mutual reconciliations between these two monarchs, which were very probably inflamed by the Sicilian king's endeavours. At length, however, having settled all controversies, they set sail for the Holy Land, where the French arrived long before the English.

Upon the arrival of the English army in Palestine, however, the French and English princes seemed to forget their secret jealousies, and to act in concert. But shortly after Philip, from the bad state of his health, returned to France, leaving Richard ten thousand of his troops under the command of the duke of Burgundy. Richard now went on from victory to victory. The Christian adventurers under his command determined to besiege the renowned city of Ascalon, in order to prepare the way for attacking Jerusalem with the greater advantage. Saladin, the most heroic of all the Saracen monarchs, was resolved to dispute their march, and placed himself upon the road with an army of three hundred thousand men. This was a day equal to Richard's wishes, this an enemy worthy his highest ambition. The English crusaders were victorious. Richard, when the wings of his army were defeated, led on the main body in person, and restored the battle. The Saracens fled in the utmost confusion; and no less than forty thousand of their number perished on the field of battle. Ascalon soon surrendered after this victory; other cities of less note followed the example, and Richard was at last able to advance within sight of Jerusalem: but just at this glorious juncture, upon reviewing his forces, and considering his abilities to prosecute the siege, he found that his army was so wasted with famine, fatigue, and even victory, that they were neither able nor willing to second the views of their commander. It appeared, therefore, absolutely necessary to come to an accommodation with Saladin; and a truce for three years was accordingly concluded; in which it was agreed, that the seaport towns of Palestine should remain in the hands of the Christians, and that all of that religion should be permitted to make their pilgrimage to Jerusalem in perfect security.

Having thus concluded this expedition with more glory than advantage, Richard began to think of returning home:

but being obliged to take the road through Germany, in the habit of a pilgrim, he was arrested by Leopold, duke of Austria, who commanded him to be imprisoned, and loaded with shackles. The emperor soon after required the prisoner to be delivered up to him, and stipulated a large sum of money to the duke, as a reward for this service. Thus the king of England, who had long filled the world with his fame, was basely thrown into a dungeon, and loaded with irons, by those who expected to reap a sordid advantage from his misfortunes. It was a long time before his subjects in England knew what was become of their beloved monarch. So little intercourse was there between different nations of that time, that this discovery is said by some to have been made by a poor French minstrel, who playing upon his harp near the fortress in which Richard was confined, a tune which he knew that unhappy monarch was fond of, he was answered by the king from within, who with his harp played the same tune; and thus discovered the place of his confinement.

However the English, at length, prevailed upon this barbarous monarch, who now saw that he could no longer detain his prisoner, to listen to terms of accommodation. A ransom was agreed upon, which amounted to an hundred and fifty thousand marks, or about three hundred thousand pounds of our money; upon the payment of which, Richard was once more restored to his expecting subjects.

Nothing could exceed the joy of the English upon seeing their monarch return, after all his achievements and sufferings. He made his entry into London in triumph, and such was the profusion of wealth shewn by the citizens, that the German lords, who attended him, were heard to say, that if the emperor had known of their affluence, he would not so easily have parted with their king. He soon after ordered himself to be crowned anew at Winchester. He convoked a general council at Nottingham, at which he confiscated all his brother John's possessions, who had basely endeavoured to prolong his captivity, and gone over to the king of France with that intent. However, he pardoned him soon after, with this generous remark; "I wish I could as easily forget my brother's offence, as he will my pardon."

Richard's death was occasioned by a singular accident: a vassal of the crown had taken possession of a treasure, which was found by one of his peasants in digging a field in France; and to secure the remainder, he sent a part of it to the king.

Richard, as superior lord, sensible that he had a right to the whole, insisted on its being sent him; and, upon refusal, attacked the castle of Chalus, where he understood this treasure had been deposited. On the fourth day of the siege, as he was riding round the place, to observe where the assault might be given with the fairest probabilty of success, he was aimed at by one Bertram de Gourdon, an archer, from the castle, and pierced in the shoulder with an arrow. The wound was not in itself dangerous; but an unskilful surgeon, endeavouring to disengage the arrow from the flesh, so rankled the wound that it mortified, and brought on fatal symptoms. Richard, when he found his end approaching, made a will, in which he bequeathed the kingdom, with all his treasure, to his brother John, except a fourth part, which he distributed among his servants. He ordered also, that the archer who had shot him, should be brought into his presence, and demanded what injury he had done him that he should take away his life? The prisoner answered, with deliberate intrepidity: "You killed with your own hands, my father and my two brothers, and you intended to have hanged me. I am now in your power, and my torments may give you revenge; but I will endure them with pleasure, since it is my consolation, that I have rid the world of a tyrant." Richard, struck with his answer, ordered the soldier to be presented with one hundred shillings, and set at liberty; but Marcadee, the general who commanded under him, like a true ruffian, ordered him to be flayed alive, and then hanged. Richard died in the tenth year of his reign, and the forty-second of his age, leaving only one natural son, called Philip, behind him.

CHAPTER X.

JOHN.

A. D. 1199—1216.

JOHN was no sooner seated on the throne, than he hastened to secure the provinces on the continent, which had revolted to young Arthur, his nephew, and rightful heir to the crown. His pride and cruelty were alike the detestation of his subjects; and the murder of prince Arthur in prison,

by his own hands, served to render him completely odious in their eyes. They dreaded his character, but could not contemn his power. But it was the fate of this vicious prince to make those the enemies of himself whom he wanted abilities to make the enemies of each other. The clergy had for some time acted as a community independent of the crown, and had their elections of each other generally confirmed by the Pope, to whom alone they acknowledged obedience. However, the elections of archbishops had for some time been a continual subject of dispute between the suffragan bishops and the Augustine monks, and both had precedents to confirm their pretensions. John sided with the bishops, and sent two knights of his train, to expel the monks from their convent, and to take possession of their revenues. The Pope was not displeased at these divisions, and instead of electing either of the persons appointed by the contending parties, he nominated Stephen Langton, as archbishop of Canterbury. John, however, refusing to admit the man of the pope's choosing, the kingdom was put under an interdict. This instrument of terror in the hands of the see of Rome, was calculated to strike the senses in the highest degree, and to operate upon the superstitious minds of the people. By it a stop was immediately put to divine service, and to the administration of all the sacraments but baptism. The church doors were shut; the statues of the saints were laid on the ground; the dead were refused Christian burial, and were thrown into ditches, and on the highways, without the usual rites, or any funeral solemnity.

No situation could be more deplorable than that of John. Furious at his indignities, jealous of his subjects, and apprehending an enemy in every one, it is said, that he shut himself up a whole night in the castle of Nottingham, and suffered none to approach his person. But what was his consternation, when he found that the Pope had actually given away his kingdom to the monarch of France, and that the prince of that country was preparing an army to take possession of his crown. He was, however, still able to make an expiring effort to receive the enemy. All-hated as he was, the natural enmity between the French and the English, the name of king, which he still retained, and some remaining power, put him at the head of sixty thousand men, a sufficient number, indeed, but not to be relied on, and with these he advanced to Dover. Europe now regarded the important preparations on both sides with impatience, and the decisive blow was soon

expected, in which the church was to triumph, or to be overthrown. But neither Philip, nor John had ability equal to the pontiff. by whom they were actuated; he appeared, on this occasion, too refined a politician for either. He only intended to make use of Philip's power to intimidate his refractory son, not to destroy him. He intimated, therefore, to John by his legate, that there was but one way to secure himself from impending danger: which was to put himself under the Pope's protection, and accordingly he took an oath to perform whatever stipulations the Pope should impose. Having thus sworn to the performance of an unknown command, the artful Italian so well managed the barons, and so effectually intimidated the king, that he persuaded him to take the most extraordinary oath in all the records of history, before all the people, upon his knees, and with his hands held up between those of the legate..

"I, John, by the grace of God, king of England, and lord 'of Ireland, in order to expiate my sins, from my own free 'will, and the advice of my barons, give to the church of Rome, 'to pope Innocent, and his successors, the kingdom of England, 'and all other prerogatives of my crown. I will hereafter hold 'them as the Pope's vassal. I will be faithful to God, to the 'church of Rome, to the Pope my master, and his successors legitimately elected. I promise to pay him a tribute of 'a thousand marks yearly: to wit, seven hundred for the 'kingdom of England, and three hundred for the kingdom of Ireland." Having thus done homage to the legate, and agreed to reinstate Langton in the primacy, he received the crown, which he had been supposed to have forfeited, while the legate trampled under his feet the tribute which John had consented to pay. Thus, by this most scandalous concession, John once more averted the threatened blow; but, by repeated acts of cruelty, and by expeditions without effect, he was become the detestation of all mankind.

The barons had been long forming a confederacy against him; but their aims were disappointed by various accidents. At length, however, they assembled a large body of men at Stamford, and from thence, elated with their power, they marched to Brackley, about fifteen miles from Oxford, the place where the court then resided. John, hearing of their approach, sent the archbishop of Canterbury, the earl of Pembroke, and others of his council, to know what those liberties were which they so earnestly importuned him to grant. The barons delivered a schedule; containing the chief articles of

their demands, and of which the former charters of Henry and Edward formed the groundwork. No sooner were these shewn to the king, than he burst into a furious passion, and asked why the barons did not also demand his kingdom? swearing that he would never comply with such exorbitant demands. But the confederacy was now too strong to fear much from the consequences of his resentment. They chose Robert Fitzwalter for their general, whom they dignified with the title of "Mareschal of the army of God, and of the holy church;" and proceeding to make war upon the king, they besieged Northampton, took Bedford, and were joyfully received in London. They wrote circular letters to all the nobility and gentlemen who had not yet declared in their favour, and menaced their estates with devastation, in case of refusal or delay.

John, struck with terror, first offered to refer all differences to the Pope alone, or to eight barons, four to be chosen by himself, and four by the confederates. This the barons scornfully rejected. He then assured them, that he would submit at discretion; and that it was his supreme pleasure to grant all their demands: a conference was accordingly appointed, and all things adjusted for this most important treaty. The ground where the king's commissioners met the barons, was between Staines and Windsor, at a place called Runimede, still held in reverence by posterity, as the spot where the standard of freedom was first erected in England. There the barons appeared with a vast number of knights and warriors, on the 15th day of June, 1215, while those on the king's part came a day or two after. Both sides encamped apart like open enemies. The barons, determined on carrying their aims, would admit of few abatements; and the king's agents being for the most part in their interest, few debates ensued. After some days, the king, with a facility that was somewhat suspicious, signed and sealed the charter required of him: a charter which continues in force to this day, and is that famous bulwark of English liberty, which goes by the name of MAGNA CHARTA. This famous deed either granted or secured freedom to those orders of the kingdom that were already possessed of freedom, namely, to the clergy, the barons, and the gentlemen; as for the inferior, and the greatest part of the people, they were as yet held as slaves, and it was long before they could come to a participation of legal protection.

John, however, took the first opportunity of denying to be in the least governed by this charter. This produced a second civil war, in which the barons were obliged to have recourse to the king of France for assistance. Thus England saw nothing but a prospect of being every way undone. If John succeeded, a tyrannical and implacable monarch was to be their tormentor: if the French king should prevail, the country was ever after to submit to a more powerful monarchy, and was to become a province of France. What neither human prudence could foresee, nor policy suggest, was brought about by a happy and unexpected event.

John had assembled a considerable army, with a view to make one great effort for the crown; and at the head of a large body of troops, resolved to penetrate into the heart of the kingdom. With these resolutions he departed from Lynn, which, for its fidelity, he had distinguished with many marks of favour, and directed his route towards Lincolnshire. His road lay along the shore, which was overflowed at high water; but not being apprised of this, or being ignorant of the tide of the place, he lost all his carriages, treasure, and. baggage, by its influx. He himself escaped with the greatest difficulty, and arrived at the abbey of Swinsted, were his grief for the loss he had sustained, and the distracted state of his affairs, threw him into a fever, which soon appeared to be fatal. Next day, being unable to ride on horse-back, he was carried on a litter to the castle of Seaford, and from thence removed to Newark, where, after having made his will, he died in the fifty-first year of his age, and the eighteenth of his detested reign.

CHAPTER XI.

HENRY III.

A. D. 1216—1272.

A CLAIM was, upon the death of John, made in favour of young Henry, the son of the late king, who was now but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of great worth and valour, who had faithfully adhered to John in all the fluctuations of his fortune, had him solemnly crowned by the bishops of Winchester and Bath, at Glou-

cester. The young king was a character the very opposite to his father: as he grew up to man's estate, he was found to be gentle, merciful, and humane; he appeared easy and good-natured to his dependants, but no way formidable to his enemies. Without activity or vigour, he was unfit to conduct in war; without distrust or suspicion, he was imposed upon in times of peace.

As weak princes are never without governing favourites, he first placed his affections on Hubert de Burgh; and he becoming obnoxious to the people, the place was soon supplied by Peter des Roches, bishop of Winchester, a Poictevin by birth, a man remarkable for arbitrary conduct, courage, and abilities. Henry, in pursuance of this prelate's advice, invited over a great number of Poictevins, and other foreigners, who were willing to adopt whatever schemes their employer should propose. Every office and command was bestowed on these unprincipled strangers, whose avarice and rapacity were exceeded only by their pride and insolence. So unjust a partiality excited the jealousy of the barons; and they assured the king, that if he did not dismiss all foreigners from court, they would drive both him and them out of the kingdom; but their anger was scarce kept within bounds, when they saw a new swarm of these intruders come over from Gascony, with Isabella, the king's mother, who had been sometime before married to the Count de la Marche. To these just causes of complaint were added the king's unsuccessful expeditions to the continent, his want of economy, and his oppressive exactions, which were but the result of the former. At last, Simon Montford, earl of Leicester, attempted an innovation in the government, to rest the sceptre from the feeble hand which held it. This nobleman was son of the famous general who commanded against the Albigenses, who had revolted from the Romish religion, and had been cruelly destroyed some time before in the kingdom of Savoy. He was married to the king's sister; and by his power and address, was possessed of a strong interest in the nation.

The first place where the formidable confederacy which he formed discovered itself, was in the parliament-house, where the barons appeared in complete armour. The king, upon his entry, asked them what was their intention? To which they submissively replied. To make him their sovereign, by confirming his power, and to have their grievances redressed. Henry, who was ready enough to promise whatever was

demanded, instantly assured them of his intentions to give all possible satisfaction; and, for that purpose, summoned a parliament at Oxford, to digest a new plan of government, and to elect proper persons, who were to be entrusted with the chief authority. This parliament, afterwards called the MAD PARLIAMENT, went expeditiously to work upon the business of reformation. Twenty-four barons were appointed, with supreme authority to reform the abuses of the state, and Leicester was placed at their head. The whole state in their hands underwent a complete alteration; all Henry's officers were displaced, and creatures of the twenty-four barons were put in their room, They not only abridged the authority of the king, but the efficacy of parliament, giving up to twelve persons all parliamentary power between each session.

The first opposition that was made to these usurpations, was from a power which but lately began to take place in the constitution. The knights of the shire, who for some time had begun to be regularly assembled in a separate house, represented, that their own interest and power seemed the only aim of all their decrees; and they even called upon the king's eldest son, prince Edward, to interpose his authority, and save the sinking nation.

Prince Edward was at this time about twenty-two years of age. The hopes which were conceived of his abilities and integrity, rendered him an important personage in these transactions of the times, and in some measure, atoned for his father's imbecility. He had, at a very early age, given the strongest proofs of courage, of wisdom, and of constancy. At first, indeed, when applied to, he refused to listen to the earnest application of the people: but being at last persuaded to concur, parliament was called, in which the king resumed his former authority. From this a civil war ensued, in which in a pitched battle, the earl of Leicester became victorious, and the king was taken prisoner, but soon after exchanged for prince Edward, who was to remain as a hostage to insure the punctual observance of the former agreement.

With all these advantages, however, Leicester still feared the combinations of the foreign states against him, as well as the internal machinations of the royal party, and was obliged to have recourse to an aid till now entirely unknown in England, namely, that of the body of the people. He called a parliament, where, besides the barons of his own party, and several ecclesiastics, who were not immediate tenants of the

crown, he ordered returns to be made of two knights from every shire; and also deputies from the boroughs, which had hitherto been considered as too inconsiderable to have a voice in legislation. This is the first confirmed outline of an English house of commons.

In this parliament, however, many of the barons, who had hitherto stedfastly adhered to his party, appeared disgusted at his immoderate ambition; and many of the people, who found that a change of masters was not a change for happiness, began to wish for the re-establishment of the royal family. Leicester, finding himself unable to oppose the concurring wishes of the nation, resolved to make a merit of what he could not prevent; and he accordingly released prince Edward from confinement, and had him introduced to Westminster hall, where his freedom was confirmed by the unanimous voice of the barons. But though Leicester had all the popularity of restoring the prince, yet he was politic enough to keep him still guarded by his emissaries, who watched all his motions, and frustrated all his aims.

Wherefore the prince, upon hearing that the duke of Gloucester was up in arms in his cause, took an opportunity to escape from his guards, and put himself at the head of his party. A battle soon after ensued; and the earl's army, having been exhausted by famine on the mountains of Wales, was but ill able to sustain the impetuosity of young Edward's attack, who bore down upon it with incredible fury. During this terrible day, Leicester behaved with astonishing intrepidity, and kept up the spirit of the action, from two o'clock in the afternoon till nine at night. At last, his horse being killed under him, he was compelled to fight on foot; and though he demanded quarter, the adverse party refused it with a barbarity common enough in the times we are describing. The old king, who was placed in front of the battle, was soon wounded in the shoulder; and not being known by his friends, he was on the point of being killed by a soldier; but crying out, "I am Henry of Winchester, the king," he was saved by a knight of the royal army. Prince Edward hearing the voice of his father, instantly ran to the spot where he lay, and had him conducted to a place of safety. The body of Leicester being found among the dead, was barbarously mangled by Roger Mortimer; and then, with an accumulation of inhumanity, sent to the wretched widow, as a testimony of the Royal party's success.

The victory proved decisive; and the prince having thus restored peace to the kingdom, found his affairs so firmly established, that he resolved upon taking the cross, which was, at that time, the highest object of human ambition. In pursuance of this resolution, Edward sailed from England with a large army, and arrived at the camp of Lewis, the king of France, which lay before Tunis; and where he had the misfortune to hear of that good monarch's death before his arrival. The prince, however, continued his voyage, and arrived at the Holy Land in safety, but was scarce departed, when the health of the old king began to decline; and he found not only his own constitution, but also that of the state, in such a dangerous situation, that he wrote letters to his son, pressing him to return with all despatch. At last, being overcome by the cares of government, and the infirmities of age, he ordered himself to be removed, by easy journies, from St. Edmund's to Westminster, where, on the night of his arrival, he expired, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and the fifty-sixth of his reign, the longest to be met with in the annals of England.

CHAPTER XII.

EDWARD I.

A. D. 1272—1307.

WHILE the unfortunate Henry was thus vainly struggling with the ungovernable spirit of his subjects, his son and successor, Edward, was employed in the Holy Wars, where he revived the glory of the English name, and made the enemies of Christianity tremble. He was stabbed, however, by one of those Muhammadan enthusiasts, called assassins, as he was one day sitting in his tent, and was cured not without great difficulty. Some say that he owed his safety to the piety of Eleonora, his wife, who sucked the poison from the wound to save his life, at the hazard of her own.

As Edward was now come to an undisputed throne, the opposite interests were proportionably feeble. The barons were exhausted by long mutual dissensions; the clergy were divided in their interests, and agreed only in one point, to hate the pope, who had for some time drained them with impunity: the people, by some insurrections against the con-

vents, appeared to hate the clergy with equal animosity. But these disagreeing orders concurred in one point, that of esteeming and reverencing the king, who therefore, thought this the most favourable conjecture for uniting England with Wales. The Welch had, for many ages, enjoyed their own laws, language, customs, and opinions. They were the remains of the ancient Britons, who had escaped the Roman and Saxon invasions, and still preserved their freedom and their country, uncontaminated by the admission of foreign conquerors. But as they were, from their number, incapable of withstanding their more powerful neighbours on the plain, their chief defence lay in their inaccessible mountains, those natural bulwarks of the country. Whenever England was distressed by factions at home, or its forces called off to wars abroad, the Welch made it a constant practice to pour in their irregular troops, and lay the open country waste wherever they came. Nothing could be more pernicious to a country than several neighbouring independent principalities, under different commanders, and pursuing different interests. Sensible of this, Edward had long wished to reduce that incursive people, and had ordered Llewellyn to do homage for his territories; which summons the Welch prince refused to obey, unless the king's own son should be delivered as an hostage for his safe return. The king was not displeased at this refusal, as it served to give him a pretext for his intended invasion. He therefore levied an army against Llewellyn, and marched into his country with certain assurances of success.

Upon the approach of Edward, the Welch-prince took refuge amongst the inaccessible mountains of Snowdon, and there resolved to maintain his ground without trusting to the chance of a battle. These were the steep retreats that had, for many ages before, defended his ancestors against all the attempts of the Norman and Saxon conquerors. But Edward, equally vigorous and cautious, having explored every part of his way, pierced into the very centre of Llewellyn's territories, and approached the Welch army in its last retreat. Hence, after extorting submission from the Welch prince, the king retired. But an idle prophecy, in which it was foretold by Merlin, that Llewellyn was to be the restorer of Brutus's empire in Britain, persuaded this prince to hazard a decisive battle against the English. With this view he marched into Radnorshire, and passing the river Wey, his troops were surprised and defeated by Edward Mortimer, while he himself

was absent from his army, upon a conference with some of the barons of that country. Upon his return, he ran desperately into the midst of the enemy, and quickly found that death he so ardently sought for. David, the brother of this unfortunate prince, soon after fell in the same cause: and with him expired the government and the distinction of the Welch nation. It was soon after united to the kingdom of England, made a principality, and given to the eldest son of the crown. Foreign conquests might add to the glory, but this added to the felicity of the kingdom. The Welch were now blended with the conquerors: and in the revolution of a few ages, all national animosity was entirely forgotten.

Soon after, the death of Margaret, queen of Scotland, gave Edward hopes of adding also Scotland to his dominions. The death of this princess produced a most ardent dispute about the succession to the Scottish throne, being claimed by no less than twelve competitors. The claims, however, of all the other candidates were reduced to three, who were the descendants of the earl of Huntingdon, by three daughters: John Hastings, who claimed in right of his mother, as one of the co-heiresses of the crown; John Baliol, who alleged his right, as being descended from the eldest daughter, who was his grandmother; and Robert Bruce, who was the actual son of the second daughter. This dispute being referred to Edward's decision, with a strong degree of assurance he claimed the crown for himself, and appointed Baliol his deputy. Baliol being thus placed upon the Scottish throne, less as a king than as a vassal, Edward's first step was sufficient to convince that people of his intentions to stretch the prerogative to the utmost. Upon the most frivolous pretences he sent six different summonses for Baliol to appear in London, at different times, in one year; so that the poor Scottish king soon perceived that he was possessed of the name only, but not the authority, of a sovereign. Willing, therefore, to shake off the yoke of so troublesome a master, Baliol revolted, and procured the pope's absolution from his former oaths of homage.

But no power the Scotch could bring into the field was able to withstand the victorious army of Edward. He overthrew their forces in many engagements, and thus becoming undisputed master of the kingdom, he took every precaution to secure his title, and to abolish those distinctions which might be apt to keep the nation in its former independence.

Baliol was carried a prisoner to London, and he carefully destroyed all records and monuments of antiquity, that inspired the Scotch with a spirit of national pride.

These expeditions however terminated rather in glory than advantage: the expenses of the war were not only burthensome to the king, but even, in the event, threatened to shake him on his throne. At first he raised considerable supplies by means of his parliament: and that august body was then modelled by him into the form in which it continues to this day. As a great part of the property of the kingdom was, by the introduction of commerce, and the improvement of agriculture, transferred from the barons to the lower classes of the people, their consent was thought necessary for raising any considerable supplies. For this reason he issued writs to the sheriffs, enjoining them to send to parliament along with two knights of the shire, (as in the former reign,) two deputies from each borough within their country. One of the first efforts, therefore was, to oblige the king's council to sign the Magna Charta, and to add a clause to secure the nation for ever against all impositions and taxes, without the consent of parliament. The king's council for Edward, who was at that time in Flanders, readily agreed to sign this: and the king himself, when it was sent over to him, after some hesitation, thought proper to do the same. These concessions he again confirmed upon his return; and was at last brought to give a plenary consent to all the articles that were demanded of him. Thus, after the contest of an age, the Magna Charta was finally established; nor was it the least circumstance in its favour, that its confirmation was procured from one of the greatest and boldest princes that ever swayed the English sceptre.

In the mean time, William Wallace, so celebrated in Scottish story, attempted to rescue Scotland from the English yoke. He was the youngest son of a gentleman, who lived in the western part of that kingdom. He was a man of gigantic stature, incredible strength, and amazing intrepidity; eagerly desirous of independence, and possessed of the most disinterested spirit of patriotism. To this man had resorted all those who were obnoxious to the English government; the proud, the bold, the criminal, and the ambitious, who, bred among dangers and hardships themselves, could not forbear admiring in their leader a degree of patience, under fa-

tigue and famine, which they supposed beyond the power of human nature to endure; he soon therefore became the principal object of their affection and their esteem. His first exploits were confined to petty ravages, and occasional attacks upon the English; but he soon overthrew the English armies, and slew their generals.

Edward, who had been over in Flanders while these misfortunes happened in England, hastened back with impatience to restore his authority, and secure his former conquest. He quickly levied the whole force of his dominions; and at the head of a hundred thousand men, directed his march to the North, fully resolved to take vengeance upon the Scots for their late defection. A battle was fought at Falkirk, in which Edward gained a complete victory, leaving twelve thousand of the Scotch (or, as some will have it, fifty thousand) dead upon the field, while the English had not a hundred slain.

The Scotch, after a short interval, began to breathe from their calamities. Wallace, who had gained all their regards by his valour, shewed that he still merited them more by his declining the rewards of ambition. Perceiving how much he was envied by the nobility, and knowing how prejudicial that envy would prove to the interests of his country, he resigned the regency of the kingdom, and humbled himself to a private station. He proposed Cummin as the properest person to supply his room; and that nobleman endeavoured to shew himself worthy of this pre-eminence. He soon began to annoy the enemy: and, not content with a defensive war, made incursions into the southern counties of the kingdom, which Edward had imagined wholly subdued. They attacked an army of the English lying at Roslin, near Edinburgh, and gained a complete victory.

But it was not easy for any circumstances of bad fortune to repress the enterprising spirit of the king. He assembled a great fleet and army; and entering the frontiers of Scotland, appeared with a force which the enemy could not think of resisting in the open field. Assured of success, he marched along, and traversed the kingdom from one end to the other, ravaging the open country, taking all the castles, and receiving the submission of all the nobles. There seemed to remain only one obstacle to the final destruction of the Scottish monarchy, and that was William Wallace, who still continued refractory; and wandering with a few

forces from mountain to mountain, preserved his native independence and usual good fortune. But even their feeble hopes from him were soon disappointed; he was betrayed into the king's hands by Sir John Monteith, his friend; and the king, willing to strike the Scotch with the example of severity, ordered him to be conducted in chains to London, where he was hanged, drawn and quartered with the most brutal ferocity.

Robert Bruce, who had been one of the competitors for the crown, but was long kept a prisoner in London, at length escaping from his guards, resolved to strike for his country's freedom. Having murdered one of the king's servants, he left himself no resource, but to confirm, by desperate valour, what he had begun in cruelty; and he soon expelled such of the English forces as had fixed themselves in the kingdom. Soon after, he was solemnly crowned king, by the bishop of St. Andrew's, in the abbey of Scone; and numbers flocked to his standard, resolving to confirm his pretensions. Thus, after twice conquering the kingdom, and as often pardoning the delinquents, the old king saw that nothing but the final destruction of the inhabitants could give him assurance of tranquillity. He vowed revenge against the whole nation, and averred, that nothing but reducing them to the completest bondage could satisfy his resentment. He summoned his prelates, nobility, and all who held by knight's service, to meet him at Carlisle, which was appointed as the general rendezvous; and, in the mean time, he detached a body of forces before him into Scotland, under the command of Aymer de Valance, who began the threatened infliction, by a complete victory over Bruce, near Methuen, in Perthshire. Immediately after this dreadful blow, the resentful king appeared himself in person, entering Scotland with his army divided into two parts, and expecting to find, in the opposition of the people, a pretext for punishing them. But his anger was disappointed in their humiliations; and he was ashamed to extirpate those who only opposed patience to his indignation. His death put an end to the apprehensions of the Scotch, and effectually rescued their country from total subjection. He sickened, and died at Carlisle, of a dysentery: enjoining his son, with his last breath, never to desist, till he had finally subdued the kingdom. He expired July 7, 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign; after having added more to the solid interests of the

kingdom than any of those who went before, or succeeded him.

CHAPTER XIII.

EDWARD II. SURNAMED CAERNARVON.

A. D. 1307—1327.

EDWARD was in the twenty-third year of his age when he succeeded his father, of an agreeable figure, of a mild, harmless disposition, and apparently addicted to few vices. But he soon gave symptoms of his unfitness to succeed so great a monarch as his father : he was rather fond of the enjoyment of his power, than of securing it; and lulled by the flattery of his courtiers, he thought he had done enough for glory, when he had accepted the crown. Instead, therefore, of prosecuting the war against Scotland, according to the injunctions he had received from his dying father, he took no steps to check the progress of Bruce; his march into that country being rather a procession of pageantry than a warlike expedition.

Weak monarchs are ever governed by favourites, and the first Edward placed his affections upon, was Piers Gaveston, the son of a Gascon knight, who had been employed in the service of the late king. This young man was beautiful, witty, brave, and active; but then he was vicious, effeminate, debauched, and trifling. These were qualities entirely adapted to the taste of the young monarch, and he seemed to think no rewards equal to his deserts. Gaveston, on the other hand, intoxicated with his power, became haughty and overbearing, and treated the English nobility with scorn and derision. A conspiracy, therefore, was soon formed against him, at the head of which queen Isabel, and the earl of Lancaster, a nobleman of great power, were associated.

It was easy to perceive, that a combination of the nobles, while the queen secretly assisted their designs, would be too powerful against the efforts of a weak king, and a vain favourite. The king, timid and wavering, banished him at their solicitation, and recalled him soon after. On this all the barons flew to arms; with the earl of Lancaster at their head. The unhappy Edward sought only for safety; and in the company of his favourite

A. D. 1312.

embarked at Tinmouth, and sailed to Scarborough, where he left Gaveston, as in a place of safety; and then went back to York himself, either to raise an army to oppose his enemies, or, by his presence, to allay their animosity. In the mean time, Gaveston was besieged in Scarborough by the earl of Pembroke; and, sensible of the bad condition of the garrison, took the earliest opportunity to offer terms of capitulation. He stipulated, that he should remain in Pembroke's hands as a prisoner for two months; and that endeavours should be used, in the mean time, for a general accommodation. But Pembroke had no intention that he should escape so easily; he ordered him to be conducted to the castle of Dedington, near Banbury, where, on pretence of other business, he left him with a feeble guard, which the earl of Warwick having notice of, he attacked the castle in which the unfortunate Gaveston was confined, and quickly made himself master of his person. The earls of Lancaster, Hereford, and Arundel, were soon apprized of Warwick's success, and informed that their common enemy was now in custody in Warwick castle, hastened to hold a consultation upon the fate of their prisoner. This was of no long continuance: they unanimously resolved to put him to death, as an enemy to the kingdom, and instantly had him conveyed to a place called Blacklow-hill, where he was beheaded.

To add to Edward's misfortunes, he soon after suffered a most signal defeat from the Scotch army under Bruce, near Bannockburn, and this drove him once more to seek relief in some favourite's company. The name of this new favourite was Hugh de Spenser, a young man of a noble English family, of some merit, and very engaging accomplishments. His father was a person of much more estimable character than the son; he was venerable for his years, and respected through life for his wisdom, his valour, and his integrity. But these excellent qualities were all diminished and vilified from the moment he and his son began to share the king's favour, who even dispossessed some lords unjustly of their estates, in order to accumulate them upon his favourite. This was a pretext the king's enemies had been long seeking for: the earls of Lancaster and Hereford flew to arms; sentence was procured from parliament of perpetual exile against the two Spensers, and a forfeiture of their fortune and estates. The king, however, at last rousing from his lethargy, took the field in defence of

his beloved Spenser, and at the head of thirty thousand men pressed the earl of Lancaster so closely, that he had not time to collect his forces together; and flying from one place to another, he was at last stopt in his way towards Scotland, by Sir Andrew Harcla, and made prisoner. As he had formerly shewn little mercy to Gaveston, there was very little extended to him upon this occasion. He was condemned by a court-martial; and led, mounted on a lean horse, to an eminence near Pomfret, in circumstances of the greatest indignity, where he was beheaded.

A rebellion, thus crushed, served only to increase the pride and rapacity of young Spenser: most of the forfeitures were seized for his use; and in his promptitude to punish the delinquents, he was found guilty of many acts of rapine and injustice. But he was now to oppose queen Isabella, a cruel, haughty woman, who fled over to France, and refused to appear in England till Spenser was removed from the royal presence, and banished the kingdom. By this she became popular in England, where Spenser was universally disliked; and she had the pleasure of enjoying the company of a young nobleman, whose name was Mortimer, upon whom she had lately placed her affections. The queen's court now, therefore, became a sanctuary for all malcontents: and, soon after accompanied by three thousand men at arms, she set out from Dort harbour, and landed without opposition on the coast of Suffolk. She no sooner appeared than there seemed a general revolt in her favour; and the unfortunate king found the spirit of disloyalty was not confined to the capital alone, but diffused over the whole kingdom. He had placed some dependence upon the garrison which was stationed in the castle of Bristol, under the command of the elder Spenser; but they mutinied against their governor, and the unfortunate favourite was delivered up, and condemned by the tumultuous barons to the most ignominious death. He was hanged on a gibbet in his armour; his body was cut in pieces, and thrown to the dogs, and his head was sent to Winchester, where it was set upon a pole, and exposed to the insults of the populace.

Young Spenser, the unhappy son, did not long survive the father; he was taken with some others who had followed the fortunes of the wretched king, in an obscure convent in Wales, and the merciless victors resolved to glut their revenge, in adding insult to cruelty. The queen had not patience to wait

the formality of a trial; but ordered him immediately to be led forth before the insulting populace, and seemed to take a savage pleasure in feasting her eyes with his distresses. The gibbet erected for his execution was fifty feet high; his head was sent to London, where the citizens received it in brutal triumph, and fixed it on the bridge. Several other lords also shared his fate; all deserving pity indeed, had they not themselves formerly justified the present inhumanity, by setting a cruel example.

In the mean time the king, who hoped to find refuge in Wales, was quickly discovered, conducted to the capital, amidst the insults and reproaches of the people, and committed to the Tower. A charge was soon after exhibited against him; in which his incapacity to govern, his indolence, his love of pleasure, and his being swayed by evil counsellors, were objected against him. His deposition was quickly voted by parliament: he was assigned a pension for his support: his son Edward, a youth of fourteen, was fixed upon to succeed him, and the queen was appointed regent during the minority.

A. D. 1327. The deposed monarch but a short time survived his misfortunes; he was sent from prison to prison, a wretched outcast, and the sport of his inhuman keepers. He had been at first consigned to the custody of the earl of Lancaster; but this nobleman shewing some marks of respect and pity, he was taken out of his hands, and delivered over to Lords Berkeley, Mountravers, and Goornay, who were entrusted with the charge of guarding him month about. Whatever his treatment from Lord Berkeley might have been, the other two practised every kind of indignity upon him, as if their design had been to accelerate his death, by the bitterness of his sufferings. Among other acts of brutal oppression, it is said that they shaved him for sport in the open fields, using water from a neighbouring ditch. He is said to have borne his former indignities with patience, but all fortitude forsook him upon this occasion; he looked upon his merciless insulters with an air of disdain, and bursting into tears, exclaimed that the time might come when he would be more decently attended. This, however, was but a vain expectation. As his persecutors saw that his death might not arrive, even under every cruelty, till a revolution had been made in his favour, they resolved to rid themselves of their fears, by destroying him at once. Accordingly

seemed to arise from the case itself, or any circumstances connected with it. The difference of opinion between the ministry and the opposition turned on the question, whether the prince of Wales should be appointed regent, during the indisposition of his royal father, with the *full* exercise of the executive power?—or, whether his power should be so far *restricted* as not to invade any of those prerogatives which can belong only and properly to the king, and cannot be exercised by any person during his life. The ministry were for limiting the power of the regent, and vesting the government of the royal household in the queen, who was to be provided with a council of advice; and when it should appear to the queen, and to the majority of her council, that the king was restored to health, his majesty was to resume his functions, and the regency to cease. This we state as the substance of the plan advanced by the ministry; but every motion or resolution that composed it underwent the strictest scrutiny, and was opposed with great vehemence by the other party.

In the mean time, although the ministry had an immediate prospect of retiring from public life, power, and patronage, and to all human appearance an administration was about to be formed which would include the principal members of opposition, such was the confidence reposed in Mr. Pitt, that all corporations and public bodies of men assembled to address their thanks to him for having supported the privileges of the people. The house of lords and commons gave him a decided majority, and the regency, if it had taken place, must have been crippled in all its parts.

Fortunately, however, for the nation, as a mutilated executive government might have lessened its consequence, about the time the regency-bill was to pass through the last forms in the house of lords, his majesty's recovery was announced, and to the great joy of the nation so completed, that he was able to resume the functions of royalty early in the month of March, on the tenth day of which the lord chancellor opened the regular parliament by a speech. The news of this happy event was quickly spread over the kingdom. Nothing was heard but the language of congratulation. The cities of London and Westminster were illuminated with a splendour that realized the decorations of eastern romance,

The 23rd of April was appointed as a day of solemn thanksgiving throughout the kingdom. On that day his majesty, accompanied by the whole royal family and the two houses of parliament, went to St. Paul's cathedral to return thanks to God for his recovery,

In Ireland, regency bills were attempted to be introduced of a similar nature to those in England; but their fate was very different. That parliament rejected every idea of restriction, and offered to the Prince of Wales the regency in its full power. Six commissioners were appointed to bear this offer to the prince; but there, as well as here, the delay was so great, that they did not arrive in England until a few days before his majesty's recovery. Immediately on this recovery being announced to the public, the corporation of London addressed his majesty, and similar addresses were sent from every part of the kingdom.

The first business that engaged the attention of the public after the meeting of parliament, was the repeal of the shop-tax. This tax was laid on by Mr. Pitt a few years before: and though not generally oppressive, yet from its partial principle, had excited an unusual degree of clamour, and many fruitless attempts were made to obtain a repeal. On a motion from Mr. Fox, the house now complied with the public wish. The majority against the repeal of the test and corporation acts on the former application of the dissenters appearing to be such as promised success to their persevering efforts, a motion for that purpose was again introduced, and the majority against it dwindled down to twenty-two. Here was an additional ground of hope; but how that came to be disappointed will appear hereafter. Considerable progress was made this year in an effort to abolish the slave-trade, which, although not completed, yet had gained so great weight with the house, that opposition seemed to die away.

The most important alteration in the collection of the revenue which occurred this year, was the extension of the excise laws to the tobacco trade. Great frauds had confessedly been practised for many years in that trade; but the excise being a mode of collection hostile to the spirit of the constitution, and at all times grating to the feelings of Englishmen, no extension of it could be popular. In this affair, therefore, the minister had to contend against a greater weight of

opposition, both within and without doors, than he had been accustomed to; notwithstanding which, the measure was carried through both houses. It is to be observed, that during the administration of Sir Robert Walpole, a measure of the same kind was resisted with such force as to hasten the downfal of that minister. During this year, on the death of Mr. Cornwall, speaker of the house of commons, Mr. Grenville succeeded to that high office; and on his accepting the office of secretary of state, the choice of the house fell upon Mr. Henry Addington, who had the singular merit or good fortune to attract the regard of all parties, by the firmness of his conduct and the impartiality of his decisions.

The year we have now concluded will be for ever distinguished in the annals of history by a revolution which took place in France, which excited the astonishment of the world, and was productive of events in which every nation of Europe was ultimately interested. The distressed state of the French finances, the growing energy of liberal opinion and increased freedom of speech, the intercourse between the enlightened lovers of liberty in England and France, the imbecility of the court, and the desertion of the military to the side of the people, brought on the grand crisis which precipitated the whole government and ancient constitution, its monarchy and aristocracy, its parliaments, courts of law, and privileges, in one heap of ruins. Happy had it been if wisdom and temperance had dictated a cautious policy to those who now obtained the popular command; but the people, emancipated from the yoke of despotism, could not restrain themselves within due bounds; violence was every where practised; and the first operations of the popular leaders were rather directed to triumph over slavery than to establish rational freedom.

The French revolution took place in the year 1789, and when the British parliament met in 1790, it accidentally became the subject of conversation,—a circumstance less important in itself than from its consequences. Mr. Burke took this opportunity to censure the leaders of affairs in France with uncommon asperity; and he was answered by his colleagues in opposition, Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan. In reply to the latter gentleman, Mr. Burke declared that from that hour their political connexion was for ever dis-

solved. The ministry seemed rather inclined to favour Mr. Burke's sentiments, while they kept aloof from the warmth of his expressions; and from this quarrel we are to date that disunion among the members of the opposition party, which has since become more wide; and perhaps to it may be referred many other events of importance which considerably affected the peace of the nation.

We have already given an account of two attempts made within a few years to obtain a repeal of the test and corporation acts. On the last of these occasions the success of the dissenters was such as, in all human probability, to ensure the object of their wishes on a future application. But as the dissenters were known, or at least supposed, to be firm friends to the French revolution, and had applauded with a considerable degree of enthusiasm the proceedings that followed it, an alarm was taken by the advocates for the church and constitution. Accordingly, when the motion for the repeal of the above acts was introduced again into the house, Mr. Burke took occasion to give such a representation of the principles of the dissenters as seemed to have more than common weight with the members present; and such were the arguments advanced by the ministry against the repeal, in the present state of affairs, and such the prevailing dread of innovation, that the motion was rejected by a majority of nearly three to one. About four hundred members gave their votes on this occasion.

On the same grounds, and from the same dread of innovation, while the dangers of innovation in France were too obvious, a motion for a reform in the state of parliamentary representation, introduced by Mr. Flood, would have been rejected, perhaps without any division, had not the mover been advised to withdraw it. The substance of Mr. Flood's plan was, that one hundred members should be added to the present house of commons, to be elected by a new and numerous body of electors, the resident householders in every county. He also proposed that the sheriff of each county should be required, by himself and his deputies, to take the poll of the resident householders in each parish on the same day.

Very little domestic business of more importance than has been detailed, engaged the attention of parliament during

the remainder of the present sessions; but a dispute took place between our court and that of Spain, which threatened to terminate in mutual hostilities. Some British merchants had, in the year 1786, formed the project of opening a trade to Port Nootka, or King George's Sound, for the purpose of supplying the Chinese market with furs. In the year 1788 they had secured to themselves an apparently permanent settlement; but the Spaniards resented the intrusion of the English into that part of the world, and in May, 1789, a Spanish frigate captured two English vessels, and at the same time took possession of the settlement which the English had formed. When this affair was laid before the house of commons, the ministry were authorized to take such steps as might obtain redress from the Spanish court, and an armament was prepared which cost nearly three millions sterling. Whether from its formidable appearance, or that Spain was seriously inclined to pacific measures, is uncertain; but the consequence was, that the court of Madrid at length consented that the satisfaction and indemnification required by the English ambassador should be granted as a preliminary. In the convention that followed, the restoration of the buildings and vessels, and the reparation of the losses sustained by the British subjects, were secured; and both nations were to partake of the rights of navigation and fishery under certain stipulated conditions. The conclusion of this affair is here, for the sake of connexion, antedated, as it did not take place before the assembling of the next parliament. In the month of June the parliament was dissolved.

The new parliament assembled on the 25th of November, 1790. His majesty, in his opening speech, expressed his satisfaction that the differences with Spain had been brought to an amicable conclusion, and that though the war between Russia and the Porte still continued, Austria had made peace with the latter, and Russia had concluded a peace with Sweden. The terms of the convention with Spain were ratified and approved in both houses of parliament by great majorities. In order to defray the expense of this armament, without any increase of the national debt, Mr. Pitt proposed certain temporary taxes, which would discharge the incumbrance in four years, and a loan of five hundred thousand pounds from the bank, without interest, so long as

a floating balance to that amount should remain in the hands of the cashier. The reason of these apparently liberal terms was this: Mr. Pitt originally intended to take five hundred thousand pounds from the unclaimed dividends lying in the Bank of England, the amount of which was estimated at six hundred and sixty thousand pounds. But this measure being opposed, as having a tendency to diminish the confidence of the public in the guardians of their property, he consented to accept the loan upon the terms above mentioned. The measure, however, had one very singular effect. The directors of the bank found themselves called upon to publish a list of the unclaimed dividends, with the names of the claimants, by which means vast numbers recovered property of which they knew nothing, but which had been carelessly left, or forgot by their ancestors in the adjustment of accounts with the bank.

Soon after the meeting of parliament motions were made by Mr. Burke, the leader of the impeachment of Mr. Hastings, for the renewal of that memorable trial, when it was found that a question, apparently of easy solution, if we consider the true ends and purposes of justice, was notwithstanding, liable to very many doubts. All the gentlemen in parliament who were of the profession of the law, whether on the ministerial or opposition side, contended, that in consequence of the dissolution of parliament the impeachment had abated. This occasioned very long and warm debates; precedents were sought, and authorities placed against authorities; but the final issue determined in favour of the impeachment, in which, however, very little progress was made during the present session, which was nearly concluded before the grand question was discussed.

Early in the year 1791 a bill was passed with little opposition, to relieve the English Roman catholics from certain legal penalties existing against them, on condition of their subscribing a declaration or protest against the authority of the pope, couched in terms which could not be well objected to by the more liberal members of that religion, but which occasioned some discontent, as it seemed to establish a distinction between those who did and those who did not protest. In April, Mr. Wilberforce introduced a motion which had long been expected, for the abo-

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lition of the slave-trade; but it was negatived by a majority of seventy-five voices. A bill, however, passed for chartering a company for the purpose of cultivating West-Indian and other tropical products at Sierra Leone, on the coast of Africa, by the use of free negroes.

One of the most important acts of this session was the establishment of a regular form of government in Canada. This province was now ordered to be divided into two distinct governments, by the appellations of upper and lower Canada. Councils nominated by the sovereign, and houses of assembly chosen by the people, were established in each. The Habeas Corpus act was asserted as a fundamental law of their constitution, and parliament were restrained from imposing any taxes but such as might be necessary for the regulation of trade and commerce, and the produce of such taxes was to be at the disposal of the respective provincial legislatures. This arrangement met with general approbation. It was in some points, however, opposed by Mr. Fox, who proposed annual or triennial elections, instead of septennial, and objected to the power reserved by the crown of annexing to certain honorary and titular distinctions an hereditary right of sitting in council. These objections served to introduce some allusions to the destruction of hereditary titles and honours in France, which called up Mr. Burke, who after a sharp altercation with Mr. Fox, with whom he had acted nearly the whole of his parliamentary career, took a solemn leave of that gentleman, as he had formerly taken of Mr. Sheridan. Mr. Fox, who burst into tears at this unexpected termination of their friendship, offered concessions, which the other rejected with contempt, and their union was dissolved for ever.

Previous to the close of this session, the country was again alarmed with the prospect of a war with Russia. When Leopold, king of Hungary, ascended the throne, he concluded a peace with the Ottoman Porte, in August, 1790. This negociation was brought about principally by the agency of the British government, and an intimation was now made from the same quarter to the empress of Russia, that it was the pleasure of the British court that peace should be restored between the Ottoman and Russian empires. She peremptorily rejected this interference, and a message was sent to

the house of commons from his majesty, importing, that the endeavours which he had used in conjunction with his allies to effect a pacification not having proved successful, his majesty judged it requisite, in order to add weight to his representations, to make some further augmentation of his naval force. But when this message came to be taken into consideration, the opposition to a Russian war was so vigorously urged within doors, and was so generally popular without, that although Mr. Pitt's motion, in consequence of the message, was carried, the votes against it were so numerous as to induce him to give up the object in view; and without the farther interference of the British court, a peace was concluded between Russia and the Porte on terms favourable to the former, in the month of August. This session of parliament closed on the 10th of June.

We have already noticed, that in 1789 a revolution took place in France, of that sweeping kind before which every ancient establishment in church and state, in government and society, gave way. The scenes that are about to open between Great Britain and France render some farther notice of that revolution necessary in this place. The deranged situation of the finances of the country, occasioned in a considerable degree by the American war, which gratified the pride, while it undermined the strength of the French court, had induced his Christian majesty to convoke, first, an assembly of the notables, or principal men in the kingdom; and, secondly, when these were found inadequate to the task, the states-general, which had not been assembled since the reign of Lewis XIII. in 1614. These consisted of three orders, the nobility, the clergy, and the third estate, or commons.

These last were double the number of the other two orders united; and, when the states-general were assembled at Versailles, a contest arose, whether the three orders should make three distinct houses, or be blended in one assembly. The third estate insisted upon the latter, and were inflexible on this point: and assuming the title of national assembly, they declared that, as such, they were competent to proceed to business, without the concurrence of the other two orders, if they still refused to join them. In the sequel, the nobility and clergy found it necessary to concede the point, and they all met in one hall. In the mean time Paris was encircled

by an army of fifty thousand men, with the apparent view of coercing that city, if necessary. Notwithstanding this, on the removal of the popular minister, M. Neckar, in July, 1789, a dreadful insurrection ensued in Paris : the military refused to fire upon the people ; the Bastile, a prison long formidable to the Parisians, was captured by the citizens ; the governor and some other obnoxious persons were beheaded, and their heads carried about in horrid triumph, on poles. In a word, eight weeks after the opening of the states-general on the fifth of May, a revolution was effected. On the 17th of July the king visited the Hotel de Ville, in Paris, and surrendered himself, as it were, to the people. From that moment he was deprived of all power as a monarch. The national assembly, now triumphant, proceeded to new-model the state. They abolished nobility and the whole feudal system; and confiscating the possessions of the clergy, rendered them dependent for support on a public allowance, like the servants of the state; and all the monasteries were suppressed. In October, in consequence of another dreadful riot at Versailles, the king, the royal family, and the national assembly, were removed to Paris. The king was now, in fact, a state prisoner, treated with the formalities appendant to royalty, but watched in all his motions with the utmost circumspection. From this irksome situation he attempted to escape in June, 1791, with the queen, his sister, the dauphin, and the princess his daughter. He had almost reached the frontiers, when he was arrested at Varennes, and conducted back to Paris. Such, however, was then the moderation of the popular party, that no disastrous consequence ensued. The national assembly completed a new constitution, which was accepted by the king in September of the same year, when this assembly dissolved itself, and a new one was chosen, to the exclusion of every member of the former; a measure of self-denial which laid the foundation of all the future miseries of France.

When intelligence of this revolution first reached England, no measures had been adopted by the national assembly which were particularly obnoxious. In their progress however, when they attacked those forms which are connected with our monarchical system, it was seen by some, and generally disseminated by writings, particularly a celebrated

work by Mr. Burke, that their intentions were the destruction of monarchy, and the establishment of republicanism, or anarchy, such as prevailed in the commotions of Charles the First's reign. Various societies in this country, on the contrary, saw in all this only the restoration of liberty to twenty-five millions of fellow-creatures, and rejoiced in the event. In the year 1790 some of these societies met to celebrate the revolution of 1789, and these meetings were attended by persons of different political principles. The publication of Mr. Burke's Reflections about the conclusion of the same year, gave rise to a controversy, in which abstract principles of government were discussed with no great delicacy or temper; and works of a very seditious tendency appeared in answer to Mr. Burke. The whole nation became involved in a war of principles; and hence, in the summer of 1791, when the French revolution became again the subject of a commemoration, the populace were incited to resent this introduction of a democratic spirit. In London, although a very numerous company assembled to celebrate the 14th of July, 1789, such was the vigour of the police that the day passed quietly; but in Birmingham, where a small company had agreed to meet, a dangerous riot took place. The mob rose in the afternoon, dispersed the company assembled at an hotel, and then proceeded to take vengeance on those who, though not present, had rendered themselves obnoxious. Two dissenting meeting-houses were burnt to the ground. The house of Dr. Priestly, a philosopher of great eminence, was attacked: he had barely time to escape: the furniture, library, and extensive philosophical apparatus were set on fire, and totally consumed. The houses of a few other gentlemen, the friends of Gallic liberty, were also destroyed without any immediate molestation from the civil power. Peace was not restored till the arrival of some troops from Nottingham. Many of the rioters were afterwards taken into custody and tried, and three were executed.

The parliament did not assemble till the thirty-first of January, 1792. In the royal speech, his majesty announced the marriage of his son, the duke of York, with the princess Frederica, daughter of the king of Prussia. He informed the houses, that a treaty had been concluded, under his meditation and that of his allies, between the em- A. D. 1792.

peror and the Ottoman Porte, and preliminaries had been agreed upon between the latter of those powers and Russia. These subjects occasioned considerable debates in the house, but the motions founded upon them were carried by great majorities. Mr. Pitt laid before the house a most flattering state of the public finances, and thought himself authorised to propose the repeal of a part of the more burthensome taxes to the amount of about 200,000*l.* per annum, and at the same time to apply the sum of 400,000*l.* to the reduction of the national debt, in aid of the annual million appropriated by parliament. These sums were stated to be part of a clear surplus of 900,000*l.* on the annual revenue. The minister added, that although it was impossible to count with certainty on our present prosperity, unquestionably there never was a time when, from the situation of Europe, we might more reasonably expect a durable peace than at the present moment.

At the instance of Mr. Wilberforce, the affair of the slave-trade was again introduced on the second of April, and he renewed his motion for the abolition. Mr. Dundas, now secretary of state, in the room of the duke of Leeds, who resigned in the preceding year, moved that the word *gradual* should be inserted before *abolition*. Mr. Pitt decidedly opposed this alteration, in a speech replete with eloquent and pathetic sentiments; but it was carried by a majority of sixty-eight votes. Mr. Dundas then moved, that "the importation of negroes into the British colonies should cease on the first of January 1800." Lord Mornington, however, proposed the first of January 1796, and a series of resolutions founded on this basis were then agreed to, and sent up to the house of peers, where they were postponed for the present session, by a motion, that evidence be heard, not before a select committee, but at the bar of the house. On this occasion, his royal highness the duke of Clarence, his majesty's third son, distinguished himself in a speech against the abolition.

In the course of last session, Mr. Fox had moved for a bill to ascertain the rights of juries in matters of libel, which passed through the house of commons, but was rejected by the lords. This year he again moved the same, and it passed into a law, but was strongly opposed in the house of lords, and

a protest against it, signed by the lord chancellor, (Thurlow,) lords Bathurst, Kenyon, (lord chief justice,) Abingdon, Walsingham, and the bishop of Bangor. By this bill, however, the duties of juries in matters of libel, as respecting fact and law, are explicitly laid down.

The numerous seditious writings which had appeared since the French revolution, gave considerable uneasiness to administration, and in the month of May a royal proclamation was issued against them, enjoining magistrates to vigilance in repressing such attempts to disturb the peace of the realm. This proclamation being laid before parliament, loyal addresses were presented from both houses, and were followed by addresses in the same spirit from all parts of the kingdom, and prosecutions were instituted against the publishers or authors of seditious writings. Thomas Paine, author of two books, entitled the Rights of Man, was convicted in the court of king's-bench, but had left the kingdom before his trial, and was afterwards outlawed.

The only other subject of importance agitated in this session related to the war in India, of which it will now be necessary to give some account. From the year 1784, when the East India Company concluded a peace with Tippoo Sahib, he had grown very formidable, and was supposed to have been attached to the interests of the court of France, by which he was incited to disturb our possessions. In the summer of 1789 he made an attack upon Cranganore, a fort which had been recently sold by the Dutch to the raja of Travancore, an ally of the English Company. On the first of May, 1790, the raja repelled the army of Tippoo, and the English government joined in defence of their ally. The grand Carnatic army immediately assembled under the command of general Meadows, and marched through the southern or Coimbatore country, and advanced towards the city of Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore. On the western side, the Bombay army, under general Abercrombie, after reducing Cannanore, and several other places on the coast, entered the kingdom of Mysore. The sultan, Tippoo, defending himself with great resolution, general Meadows found it necessary to retreat to the vicinity of Madras, where, in the month of December, 1790, lord Cornwallis, the governor-general, took the command of the army in person, and resolved

to force a passage to Seringapatam through the country lying directly westward of Madras. On the twenty-first of March, 1791, the important town of Bangalore was taken by storm, with little loss on the part of the British; on the thirteenth of May, the army arrived in sight of the capital of Mysore, defended by the sultan in person; and on the next day, an action took place, in which Tippoo sustained a partial defeat; but the swelling of the Cavery, together with the want of provisions, compelled lord Cornwallis to retreat to Bangalore, at the same time that general Abercrombie, who had planned a junction with lord Cornwallis, was also obliged to lead back his army, amidst innumerable disappointments and fatigues. The next campaign, however, was decisive. In the month of February, 1792, the eastern and western armies effected a junction under the walls of Seringapatam. On the seventh, a general attack was made by moonlight on the lines of the sultan, in consequence of which, the capital became closely and completely invested. Upon this, Tippoo sent a vakeel to the camp of lord Cornwallis to sue for peace, which was granted upon the following terms:—That he should cede one-half of his dominions to the allied powers, pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees, as an indemnification for the expenses of the war; release all the prisoners, and deliver two of his sons as hostages for the due performance of the treaty. These terms being accepted, on the nineteenth of March, the definitive treaty, signed by the sultan, was delivered by the young princes, the hostages, into the hands of lord Cornwallis. This war was supposed to have been provoked by the intrigues of the court of France, now in no condition to support projects of the kind.

On the fifteenth of June, the session of parliament closed with a speech, in which his majesty expressed his great concern at the actual commencement of hostilities in different parts of Europe. This alluded to the declaration of war made by the French against the emperor of Germany in the month of April, and a league having been formed between the emperor and the king of Prussia against the measures of the French assembly. The forces of the two powers were united, and the command of the combined army given to the duke of Brunswick Lunenburgh, who, in the month of July, published from Coblentz, a declaration addressed to the inhabitants of

France, and stating the causes for which Prussia and Germany had united their forces; to co-operate with him in these purposes, the duke invited the sober part of the nation, which he considered as the majority, to declare themselves openly against the odious enterprises of their oppressors; and as general commandant-in-chief of the two armies, he declared, that the allied powers had no other object in view than the welfare of France, without any pretence to enrich themselves by making conquests; but to restore the king to that safety which was necessary to his making such concessions as he should think proper, and for endeavouring to ensure the welfare of his subjects according to his promises, and to the utmost of his power. All national guards (for so the new military in France were now called) who should oppose the entrance of the combined army into France, if taken with arms in their hands, were to be treated as enemies, and punished as rebels to their king, and as disturbers of the public peace. The regular French troops were likewise required to submit, and upon non-compliance, were threatened to be treated as rebels to their lawful sovereign; and the inhabitants of cities, towns, or districts of all descriptions, who should molest the troops of the allied army in their progress, should be punished with loss of life, and confiscation of their estates. The governing powers of Paris and its inhabitants in general, were called upon instantly, and without delay, to set their king at liberty, and submit to him, on pain of militray execution on refusal. If the palace of the Thuilleries should be forced or insulted, if the least violence should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, and if they were not immediately placed in safety and set at liberty, the city of Paris should be given up to military execution, and exposed to total destruction. All acts of the king, while restrained, were declared to be null and void.

This ill-judged publication produced effects the very opposite of what were intended. The executive powers of France was suspected, not only of not properly exerting the national force against the enemy, but of acting in concert with them, and with the emigrant princes, and others who were in arms against their country. This suspicion, however slightly founded, proved fatal to the king, although one of the most humane princes that had ever sat on the throne of France. In August 1792, the mayor of Paris, at the head

of a deputation from that city, appeared at the bar of the national assembly, and demanded the deposition of the king. Before they could deliberate on this demand, a dreadful insurrection ensued: the Thuilleries, the residence of the royal family, was attacked; the Swiss guards were defeated and massacred: and the king and royal family fled for refuge to the national assembly. That body instantly decreed the suspension of the executive power in the hands of the king, and the convocation of a national convention. The king and his family were conveyed to a prison in Paris, called the Temple, and there kept in close confinement, accompanied by circumstances of studied cruelty and humiliation. The convention met on the twenty-first of September, and instantly decreed the abolition of royalty, and the formation of a republic on the principles of what they termed liberty and equality. In December following, they decreed that the king should be tried before them. The trial accordingly took place; and this tribunal, which absurdly exercised at once the incompatible characters of accusers, prosecutors and judges, condemned the unfortunate monarch, who was in pursuance of their sentence, publicly beheaded, in the Place de Louis XV. now called the Place de la Revolution, on the 21st of January 1793. It ought to be added, that since the deposition of the king, the prisons had been filled with persons accused of disaffection to the ruling powers, and on the second of September they were forced open, and a most horrid and indiscriminate massacre of the prisoners took place. Other suspected persons, many thousand priests, and the principal nobility had made their escape, and the greater part took refuge in England, where an allowance was provided for the poorer sort. After various successes, the combined armies were attacked at Jemappe, near Mons, by the French army, and a signal victory gained: before the end of the year, the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxemburgh and Liege, were subjected to the arms of France. So rapid was their progress, and so great were the distresses of the combined armies, arising from a scarcity of provisions, from a long rainy season, and from a considerable mortality among the Prussians, that the latter retreated from the dominions of France, and the Austrians soon followed them.

These events were not beheld with unconcern in England. Decrees passed in the national convention, supposed hostile to the peace of this country, induced the ministry to call the parliament together as early as the thirteenth of December, previous to which a royal proclamation was issued, stating, that notwithstanding the late proclamation of the twenty-first of May, the utmost industry was still employed by evil-disposed persons within the kingdom, acting in concert with persons in foreign parts, with a view to subvert the laws and constitution : and that a spirit of tumult and disorder thereby excited, had lately shewn itself in acts of riot and insurrection; and that these causes moving him thereto, his majesty had forthwith resolved to embody part of the militia of the kingdom. This proclamation occasioned great alarm ; the troops were marched to the vicinity of the metropolis, the guard at the bank doubled, and the fortifications of the Tower of London repaired ; while meetings were held in all parts of the kingdom, from whence issued loyal addresses to the throne, more pointedly in support of the king and constitution than any which had yet been published.

In the opening speech his majesty alluded to the necessity he was under of attending to the internal government of France: the strong and increased indications which had appeared there of an intention to excite disturbances in other countries, to disregard the rights of neutral nations, and pursue views of conquest and aggrandizement, as well as to adopt towards his allies the States-general measures which were neither conformable to the law of nations nor to the positive stipulations of existing treaties. Under these circumstances his majesty thought it right to have recourse to those means of prevention and internal defence with which he was entrusted by law, and to make some augmentation of his naval and military force. The opposition to these measures was very ineffectual, an amendment to the address having been supported by only fifty voices against two hundred and ninety in the house of commons. In that of the lords, the address was carried without division, and the most vigorous preparations for war were begun. A bill for forcibly transporting aliens out of the kingdom was passed, and the ports of Great Britain were shut against the exportation of corn to France, while it was permitted to her enemies. In

the end, the ambassador of the republic, M. Chauvelin, was ordered, under the authority of the alien-bill, at a short notice, out of the kingdom: and all hopes of reconciliation being precluded by the respective measures adopted by France and England, the convention, on the 1st of February, 1793. unanimously declared the republic of France at war with the king of Great Britain and the stadtholder of Holland.

A. D. 1793. The war now commenced on the part of Great Britain, in conjunction with the allied powers of Germany and Prussia. Troops were sent to the continent, and the duke of York, his majesty's second son, appointed commander-in-chief. The campaign was upon the whole, favourable to the combined armies. They defeated the French under general Miranda, and raised the siege of Maestricht. Those under general Valence were also defeated: and soon after general Dumourier, who assumed the command of the disconcerted armies of Valence and Miranda, was attacked by the prince of Cobourg and general Clairfait, and defeated at Tirlemont; and finding himself opposed in his plans by the French rulers, after an ineffectual attempt to seduce his army he made his escape into England, which he was immediately ordered to leave. Conde and Valenciennes surrendered to the combined armies, the latter to the duke of York, who made afterwards an unsuccessful attempt on Dunkirk. In the mean time the English and Spanish fleets were received into the harbour of Toulon, where lord Hood published a proclamation, declaring his intention in entering the harbour, which was to retain the ships, naval stores, and arsenal, until a regal government should be established in France, and then they were to be restored to the monarch. Toulon was now garrisoned with eighteen thousand men of different nations, the kings of Spain, Naples, and Sardinia having joined the confederacy against France. Sweden, Denmark, Tuscany, and Genoa remained neutral. In November, Sir Gilbert Elliot, general O'Hara, and lord Hood, were appointed commissioners to treat with the French royalists at Toulon. The French, however, in the beginning of December, by vigorous attacks, regained Toulon; and the combined fleets, before abandoning the place, on the eighteenth of that month, set fire to the arsenals, blew up the powder maga-

zine, and burnt nine ships of the line, besides frigates and ships in the docks. In the West Indies a detachment of British troops effected a landing upon that part of the island of Hispaniola which belonged to the French.

During this campaign, Paris presented a scene of horrors unparalleled in the history of civilized nations. Numerous executions took place of not only individuals, but whole families, suspected of disaffection to the ruling power, which was now chiefly in the hands of Maximilian Robespierré, a man risen from obscurity, and known only for his crimes. Among the illustrious victims of his cruelty was the helpless and unoffending queen, who perished by the guillotine, on the 16th of October, in the thirty-eighth year of her age. Her sufferings had been previously aggravated by the mockery of a trial.

In England various persons were tried for seditious publications; and in Scotland two were tried for seditious practices, and banished to Botany Bay.

A. D. 1794. The parliament met on the twenty-first of January: in the royal speech his majesty adverted to the successes of the preceding compaign at Valenciennes, Toulon, and the Indies; and to pursue the war with vigour was declared to be a duty we owed to ourselves, in order to compel the French to such terms as might be snitable to our honour. The sentiments of this speech were vigorously combated by the opposition, now thinned of their numbers by the desertion of the duke of Portland, earl Fitzwilliam, earl Spencer, lord Loughborough, appointed lord chancellor, and many distinguished members of the house of commons. An immense majority, therefore, voted on the side of the ministry. For the service of the navy eighty-five thousand men were granted; and the total of the British army, including regulars, militia, and fencibles, was stated to be above 140,000 troops. The supply of the year was estimated at 19,940,000*l.* and eleven millions were allowed to be raised by loan. An ineffectual attempt was made to revive the subject of abolishing the slave-trade, to which the house of lords continued to show the greatest reluctance. The administration exerted themselves to frustrate the designs of a decree passed in the French convention, respecting French property in foreign countries, which enacted that all merchants, capi-

talists, and others, who are possessed of funds in foreign countries, shall make a declaration of all the effects and funds possessed by them abroad, and of all the merchandizes in foreign countries. To counteract the natural effects of this measure, the English parliament passed a bill to prevent the application of assets in the hands of any of the subjects belonging to his majesty, to or for the disposal of persons resident in France under the power of the persons who exercise the present government in France, and for preserving the produce of such property to the individual owners thereof.

As the French had also threatened this country with an invasion, it became necessary to call forth a force sufficient to repel the attempt. For this purpose the secretary of state addressed circular letters to the lord lieutenants of the several counties, ordering them to take the sense of the inhabitants upon the best mode to be pursued, in order to secure the internal defence of the kingdom, either in case of invasion by a foreign enemy, or in case of riots and disturbances at home. In consequence of these letters, meetings were held in most cities and considerable towns in the kingdom, and large sums of money were subscribed to raise troops. A bill was afterwards introduced, but passed with considerable opposition, to empower his majesty to employ Frenchmen in the British service. A large sum of money was also voted as a subsidy to the king of Prussia.

On the twelfth of May the secretary of state brought a message from his majesty, purporting that, having received information that seditious practices had lately been carried on by certain societies in London, in correspondence with societies in different parts of the country, and avowedly directed to the object of assembling a pretended general convention of the people, in contempt and defiance of the authority of parliament, he had therefore given directions for seizing the books and papers of the said societies in London which had been seized accordingly; and that his majesty had also given orders for laying them before the house of commons, and recommendng them to consider the same. About this time, one Hardy, a shoemaker, secretary of the London Corresponding Society, and Mr. Adams, secretary to the Constitutional Society, together with Mr. Horne Tooke, John Thelwall, and Jeremiah Joyce were taken up and committed to the Tower

under a charge of high treason. A bill was also brought in to empower his majesty to secure and detain such persons as shall be suspected of conspiring against his person and government: this to remain in force until February 1795.—The session closed on the eleventh of July.

The success of the allied armies was this year completely reversed. The allies lost the advantageous positions they had formerly acquired, and, what was of infinite consequence to France, she had quelled a most dangerous rebellion, as it was called, in La Vendée, upon which the hopes of Europe were fixed. But the mortification arising from these events was considerably lessened by the brilliant success of the British arms in other quarters. Martinico, St. Lucie, and Gaudaloupe, in the West Indies, were taken, and Corsica not only submitted to our arms, but consented to remain under the British crown, and to be governed by a constitution framed for the purpose. But the most splendid action of the war hitherto, was the victory gained by lord Howe over the French fleet, on the second of June. The French had twenty-six sail of the line, and the English twenty-five. Seven of the French ships were captured, and most of the remainder materially damaged. The rejoicings on account of this victory were great and general. In the East Indies the French lost Pondicherry, Chandernagore, and Mahie.

In the course of this campaign, however, the French had stretched their arms to the western borders of Spain with considerable success, and their other army regained the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, Landrecy, Quesnoy, Conde, and Valenciennes. They also gained possession of Ostend, Brussels, Ghent, and Antwerp: and in December, by the great rivers being frozen, their armies were enabled to pass the Rhine and the Waal, and by a series of manœuvres soon overran the United Provinces: but this event more strictly belongs to the ensuing year.

The principal occurrence which drew the attention of the public at the close of this year, was the State Trials. On the second of October a special commission was opened for the trial of Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, John Augustus Bonney, Stewart Kyd, Jeremiah Joyce, Thomas Holcroft, John Richter, John Thelwall, John Baxter, Thomas Wardle, Mathew Moore, and Richard Hodgson, for high treason. Of

these, Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, and John Thelwall only were tried and acquitted: the rest were dismissed without trial.

On the 30th of December the two houses of parliament met, and his majesty stated in the opening speech, that notwithstanding the disappointments and reverses which were experienced in the course of the last campaign, he retained a firm conviction of the necessity of persisting in a vigorous prosecution of the just and necessary war in which we were engaged. His majesty also observed, that the states-general had been led by a sense of present difficulties to enter into a negociation for peace with the party now prevailing in France; that he had accepted the crown and sovereignty of Corsica; that he had concluded a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation with the United States of America; and that a treaty of marriage had been concluded for the prince of Wales and the princess Caroline, daughter of the duke of Brunswick.

A. D. 1795.

Much of this session was distinguished by motions made by the opposition, to obtain a repeal of the act by which the habeas-corpus act was suspended; to prove that the existence of the present government of France should not be considered, at this time, as precluding a negotiation for peace, and to promote other measures hostile to those of the administration; but these were all negatived by large majorities. At the same time petitions for peace were presented to the throne from several counties and corporations, some paying respect to the ministry, and others loading them with censure. To some of these last, counter-petitions were presented. For the purpose of carrying on the war, a sum amounting to six millions was voted to be raised, to enable the emperor of Germany to send into the field an army of two hundred thousand men. A hundred thousand men were voted for our navy. The total of the supplies for the year, including six millions of exchequer bills, amounted to the sum of twenty-eight milions, one hundred and twenty-eight thousand pounds. The sum to be borrowed this year was eighteen millions, and the new taxes were laid upon wine, spirits, tea, insurance, customs, stamp duties, regulations of franking and hair powder licences.

On Wednesday the eighth of April his royal highness the prince of Wales was married to the princess Caroline of Brunswick, his cousin; and on the twenty-seventh a message was delivered from his majesty to both houses of parliament relative to the debts of the prince of Wales, and an increase of his establishment. The purport of the message was, that the debts should be gradually discharged from the produce of the Duchy of Cornwall, and part of the increased allowance for the establishment of his household. A bill was brought in for these purposes, which occasioned very warm debates. Mr. Pitt stated the prince's debts to be between 6 and 700,000*l.*, no part of which could be defrayed out of the civil list, as so many charges had lately fallen on that; he therefore moved, that the sum of 125,000*l.* *per annum* be allowed the prince, exclusive of the Duchy of Cornwall. This was carried, though with great opposition, and a part of his highness's revenue being appropriated to pay his debts, commissioners were appointed to manage that business; these were the speaker of the house of commons, the chancellor of the exchequer, the master of the rolls, the master of his majesty's household, and the surveyor of the crown lands. On the 27th of June the parliament was prorogued.

It has already been noticed, that the severity of the winter, by freezing the rivers in Holland, gave the French army under general Pichegru an easy access to that country. The states of Friesland first renounced their alliance with England, and entered into treaty with the French. On the tenth of January the French crossed the Waal, with an army of 70,000 men, and attacked general Walmoden, who commanded the allied army on the departure of the duke of York, and who was now every where defeated; and no farther opposition remaining, the cities of Utrecht, Rotterdam, &c. opened their gates to the French, who soon after took possession of the whole of the United Provinces. The stadtholder, upon receiving intelligence that the French had crossed the Waal, took immediate measures for his flight, and to secure what property he could. He very fortunately effected his escape on board a small vessel, which was ready to sail, and after some difficulty arrived with his family in England, where

the palace of Hampton-court was fitted up by the beneficence of the British sovereign for his reception. The Dutch proceeded after this to form a new republican constitution on the French model, and entered into an alliance offensive and defensive with that people, who treated them rather as a conquered province than an independent nation in alliance. The British troops which survived the defeat of Walmoden returned to England, through the greatest hardships and difficulties.

Towards the close of this compaign, however, the Austrians gained considerable advantages, compelling the French to repass the Rhine, and forcing their intrenchments near Mayence, which were deemed impregnable. On this occasion one hundred and six pieces of cannon, two hundred ammunition waggons, and two thousand prisoners fell into the hands of the Austrians, and soon after the city of Manheim surrendered; and towards the latter end of December a truce was agreed upon for three months, during which time preparations were made for a campaign the most memorable in the annals of history. On the other hand, the French had penetrated, with very inconsiderable opposition, so far into the Spanish territories, as to cut off one member from the grand alliance. The court of Spain, alarmed for its existence, entered into a treaty of peace and alliance with the French government in the month of August. On the part of Great Britain a body of French emigrants, admitted into British pay, and amounting nearly to seven thousand, were landed on the French coast to co-operate with the insurgents in that quarter; but on the twenty-first of July they were surprised by the republicans, and were all killed or made prisoners, except nine hundred of the original body and about fifteen hundred royalists who had joined them, and escaped on board the fleet. The principal emigrants taken were afterwards put to death by military execution.

By sea, the British fleet still preserved its superiority. On the twenty-third of June, lord Bridport, with the squadron under his command, attacked the French fleet close in with Port L'Orient. The ships which struck were the Alexander, the Formidable, and Le Tigree, which were with difficulty retained. If the enemy had not been protected and sheltered by the land, the number captured would probably have been

greater. The Cape of Good Hope, and Trincomalee in the island of Ceylon, were added to the possessions of Great Britain. In the Mediterranean, the fleet under admiral Hotham engaged with the French fleet, and took two ships of the line, but with the loss of an English line of battle ship. The French also, in the course of this year, took the Berwick, and the Censeur, both of the line, and some merchantmen. But their success in negotiation was more decisive in favour of the Republic. Besides Spain, they concluded treaties of peace with the Dutch, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, Hesse Cassel, and the Elector of Hanover, and at last with the court of Berlin. They also in this year adopted a new form of constitution, by which the legislative body consisted of a council of ancients, amounting to two hundred and fifty members, and a council of five hundred. The executive power was entrusted to a directory of five members, nominated by the two councils, one of whom was to quit his station annually.

On the twenty-third of April the impeachment of Warren Hastings, Esq. was finally determined in Westminster-hall. Of the members of the house of commons, near four hundred attended, but of peers only twenty-nine who determined to vote. On the first article of the charge, earls Radnor, Suffolk, Fitzwilliam, and Caernarvon, the duke of Norfolk, and the lord chancellor, pronounced him guilty; but the other twenty-three peers pronounced him not guilty. Upon the other charges their verdict was nearly the same. When the court had gone through the sixteen questions in this manner, Mr. Hastings was called to the bar and informed by the lord chancellor, that he was acquitted of the charges prefered against him by the house of commons, and that he was then discharged upon paying his fees. This memorable trial commenced on the twelfth of February, 1788: but such were the delays by long adjournments, that the court in all this time had sat only one hundred and forty-nine days.

The parliament assembled again on the twenty-ninth of October. His majesty assured the two houses, that it was a great satisfaction to him to reflect that the prospect of affairs had been materially improved in the course of the present year: that the distraction and anarchy which had

so long prevailed in France, had led to a crisis of which it was then impossible to foresee the issue: but if that crisis should terminate in any order of things compatible with the tranquillity of other countries, and afford a reasonable expectation of security in any treaty which might be concluded, the appearance of a disposition to negociate for a general peace on just and suitable terms, would not fail to be met on his part, with an earnest desire to give it the most speedy effect. Convinced that nothing could accelerate a peace so much as carrying on the war with the greatest energy and vigour, his majesty farther stated, that he was making the greatest exertions for maintaining and improving our naval superiority, and for carrying on vigorous operations in the West Indies. He also informed the two houses, that he had concluded engagements of defensive alliance with the two imperial courts, and ratified a treaty of commerce with the United States of America.

The opening of this session was distinguished by a scandalous outrage commited on the person of his majesty by the populace, as he was going in procession to the house of peers. Besides other rude marks of popular phrenzy, when his majesty had arrived at the narrow part of Palace-yard, something was discharged against the carriage with the velocity of a bullet. As soon as his majesty had retired from the house of lords, evidence was called to their lordships' bar on this affair, which evidence was also transmitted to the commons. A royal proclamation was soon after issued, offering a reward of one thousand pounds for the apprehension of any of the persons concerned in the outrage upon his majesty, but it produced no effect. One Kidd Wake was taken up for hissing and hooting the king, and afterwards indicted for a misdemeanor, and sentenced to solitary confinement in Gloucester jail, for five years.

The sentiments of the ministry and of the majority of the people on this outrage, may be gathered from a proclamation which was issued on the fourth of November, and laid before the house of lords. It stated, that various large meetings of the people had been held lately, particularly one in the fields near Copenhagen-house, in the vicinity of the metropolis, the very day before that on which the parliament met, at which several violent, inflammatory, and seditious speeches had been

uttered by divers persons, tending to produce tumult, riot and confusion; and in consequence of those meetings a violent and unwarrantable attack had been made upon the person of his majesty. The proclamation, therefore commanded all magistrates, &c. on the intention of any such meeting hereafter to be held coming to their knowledge, that they should immediately attend the place where such meeting was designed to be held, and use all lawful means to prevent the same from being held, and to disperse the people, &c.

But as this was merely recommending the use of means already in the hands of the magistrate, and which might prove too weak to suit the exigencies of the case, two bills were introduced into the house, the one for the better security of his majesty's person and government, and the other for the more effectual prevention of seditious meetings and assemblies. Although there was no question as to the propriety of securing his majesty's person from insult, the principle of the last of these bills excited much opposition, particularly without doors. Meetings were held in all parts of the kingdom to consider the subject; addresses and petitions were presented to the crown and parliament, conveying the sentiments of such meetings. The number of petitions, or addresses, in favour of the two bills was sixty-five, and the number of signatures, as far as stated on presentation, twenty-nine thousand nine hundred and twenty-two; but the number of petitions against them was ninety-four, and the signatures one hundred and thirty-one thousand two hundred and eighty-four. In parliament, however, the majorities in favour of these bills were as great as they had usually been in all questions of importance since the commencement of the war.

The whole of the force employed in the service of the year was stated by the secretary at war to amount to 207,000 men. The amount of the supply was stated by the chancellor of the exchequer at 27,662,082*l.*; a loan was negotiated of eighteen millions, and new taxes were laid upon property descending to collateral heirs, also upon pleasure and labour horses, and printed cottons; and alterations were made in other branches of the revenue, the whole of which was estimated at 1,123,000*l.*

On the eighth of December an important message was communicated to the parliament, in which his majesty ac-

quainted them, that the crisis that was depending at the commencement of the present session had led to such an order of things in France, as would induce his majesty (conformably to the sentiments he had already declared) to meet any disposition to negotiate on the part of the enemy, with an earnest desire to give it the fullest and speediest effect, and to conclude a treaty of general peace, whenever it could be effected on just and suitable terms for himself and his allies. On this message, however, no proceeding was at present founded.

In the month of February, when a motion was made for peace by a member in the opposition, the minister assured the house that the interval of the Christmass recess had not been misapplied, and that on the contrary he and his colleagues had pursued all possible means to open every avenue to negotiation. Matters were in train to meet any overture which the French might offer, and that, if necessary, he was ready to make the first opening. A. D. 1796.

On the eighteenth of April the second budget was presented to parliament by Mr. Pitt, who observed, that when he presented the last, he proposed to raise 135,000*l.* by a tax upon printed cottons; but since that time he deemed it advisable to relinquish it, and substitute new taxes in its place; these were a tax upon dogs, hats, and an additional duty on wine, calculated in all at 740,000*l.* On the fifth of July the parliament was prorogued by his majesty, with a speech, in which he stated that the happiest effects had been experienced from the provisions they had made for repressing civil tumult and sedition, and for restraining the progress of principles subversive of all established governments; that he should ever reflect with heartfelt satisfaction on the uniform wisdom, temper, and firmness which had appeared in all their proceedings since he first met them in that place; and that they had omitted no opportunity to prove their just anxiety for the re-establishment of general peace, on secure and honourable terms. Next day a proclamation was published for dissolving the parliament, and calling a new one.

During this session an attempt was made to sound the inclinations of the French directory as to peace. On the 8th of March a note was transmitted to M. Barthelemi, ambas-

sador of the French republic to the Helvetic body, from the British cabinet, through the hands of Mr. Wickham, requesting that he would transmit in writing his answer to three interrogatories: "Whether there was a disposition in France to open a general negociation for the establishment of a general peace upon just and equitable terms, by sending for that purpose, ministers to a congress, at a place which might be afterwards agreed upon? Whether there was a disposition to communicate the general grounds of a pacification, such as France would be willing to propose, in order that his majesty and his allies might in concert examine thereupon, whether they were such as might serve as the foundation of a negociation for peace? or, Whether there was a desire to propose any other way whatever, for arriving at the same end, that of a general pacification?" M. Barthelemi, in answer to this note, informed Mr. Wickham, that he had transmitted his note to the executive directory, who had signified to him, that they ardently desired to procure for the French republic a just, honourable, and solid peace; and that the step taken by Mr. Wickham would have afforded to the directory real satisfaction, if the declaration itself which that minister makes, of his not having any order or power to negotiate, did not give room to doubt of the sincerity of the pacific intentions of his court. They declare farther that charged by the constitution with the execution of the laws, they cannot make or listen to any proposal that would be contrary to them. The constitutional act does not permit the directory to consent to any alienation of that, which, according to the existing laws, constitutes the territory of the republic. Here his negotiation, if it may be so called, ended; the British minister declaring, in a note published April 10, that as the directory had avowed the inadmissible pretension of appropriating to France all that the laws actually existing there may have comprised under the denomination of the French territory, and that no proposal contrary to it will be made, or even listened to, nothing is left for the king but to prosecute a war equally just and necessary.

The force of this country since the change in the posture of affairs on the continent, was necessarily directed to the foreign possessions of the enemy, or to the destruction of their naval power. With the former intention, an armament

was fitted out at Madras against the Dutch settlements on the Molucca islands; and on the appearance of this force at Amboyna, the Dutch governor and council surrendered the island and its dependencies by capitulation. The island of Banda surrendered in like manner soon after, and in both those places considerable treasure and valuable goods fell into the hands of the captors. The British forces also took possession of the Dutch settlements at Demerara and Issequibo, in South America, with the neighbouring colony of Berbice. Nor were the Dutch less unfortunate in the fate of their navy. In the month of August a fleet, consisting of three sail of the line, five frigates and sloops, with a store-ship, having entered Saldana bay with a view to attack the Cape of Good Hope, were summoned to strike to the British fleet, of superior force, which then came up, commanded by Sir George Keith Elphinstone. Resistance would have been in vain, had it been attempted: the whole were consequently captured, and the Dutch commander, Lucas, endeavoured to charge this disaster to the disaffection of his seamen. In various minor actions, vessels of different kinds were taken from the French, Spaniards, and Dutch, in the course of this year.

On the other hand, the French opened the campaign on the continent, on the side of Italy, with the most brilliant prospects. Their army was commanded by a young officer of the name of Buonaparte, a Corsican by birth, who soon signalized himself, and was accounted the most successful general of his day. To detail the various engagements between the French and Austrians, and the French and Italian states in this one campaign, which lasted almost without intermission until the month of April, 1797, would alone require a volume far exceeding the limits of the present history. The campaign did not end until the French were almost at the gates of Vienna; and while all or most of the petty princes of Germany had sued for peace, the French had overrun the greatest part of the states of Italy, compelling each to receive what terms their general chose to dictate. But these victories were not merely followed by the humiliation of the vanquished. Peace with the French was the prelude to revolutions, which in one shape or other overturned all the ancient establishments of Italy, particularly the Popedom, in the room

of which various republics were formed. These successes having given the enemy a superiority in the Mediterranean, the English viceroy at Corsica found it necessary to withdraw his troops from that island, and the government lately established was consequently overthrown.

A petty war between the English in Jamaica and the Maroons, descendents of the Spanish slaves, who refused to submit when the English took this island, and lived in a kind of independent state, had been carried on since the end of 1795, and in March, 1796, was concluded by the entire conquest of the Maroons, though not till after twenty battles, in which they displayed considerable prowess and fierceness. It was supposed they had been incited by the French, who also raised disturbances in Dominica, Grenada, and St. Vincent's, which were soon quelled. But the most remarkable attempt of the French was directed to the sister kingdom of Ireland, where they were instructed to expect assistance from a spirit of sedition and disaffection that had manifested itself in various parts of that country. On the 26th of December, about seven sail of French ships, some of them of the line, made their appearance in Bantry Bay, but were prevented from landing by the tempestuous weather. By accident, a lieutenant and a few other men were driven on shore in a boat, and made prisoners. By their account, it appeared that an armament which had been preparing, for some time at Brest, was intended for the invasion of Ireland; that the fleet consisted of seventeen sail of the line, with upwards of thirty frigates and transports, in three divisions, commanded by admiral de Galles; and that they had troops on board, from twenty to twenty-five thousand in number under the command of general Hoche. This fleet however, was driven away by the tempest, and returned to Brest and Rochelle, with the loss of a frigate captured by the English, and two seventy-four gun ships which ran on shore near Brest.

The new parliament was assembled on the 28th of September, and Mr. Addington, the former speaker, having been unanimously re-elected, his majesty addressed both houses in a speech from the throne, in which he assured them, that it gave him peculiar satisfaction to recur to their advice, after the recent opportunity which had been given of collecting the sense of the people, engaged in an arduous contest for the

preservation of all that was most dear; that he had exerted every endeavour to set on foot a negotiation to restore peace to Europe; that the steps he had taken for that purpose had at last opened the way to an immediate and direct negotiation: that he should immediately send a person to Paris with full powers to treat for peace: that the enemy had manifested an intention of attempting a descent upon these kingdoms; that, in reviewing the events of the year they must have observed, that by the skill and exertions of the navy, our extensive and increasing commerce had been protected almost beyond example, while the fleets of the enemy were blocked up in their own ports; that the operations in the East and West Indies had been both honorable and advantageous to the nation. Notice also was taken of the temporary success of the Austrian arms at the beginning of the campaign, and of the conduct of Spain, which had been induced by the French to declare war against this country.

In consequence of the intention of the enemy to invade Great Britain or Ireland, the minister proposed a very considerable augmentation of our forces for internal defence, by raising fifteen thousand men to be divided between the army and navy; by a supplemental militia, consisting of sixty thousand, a body of irregular cavalry, about twenty thousand, and a corps of seven hundred men expert in the use of fire-arms, consisting of game-keepers, in all one hundred and two thousand men. When the house went into a committee of supply, a few days after this, the secretary at war stated the whole force of this country at home and abroad to amount to one hundred and ninety-five thousand six hundred and seventy-four men. In December the minister calculated the whole supplies of the year at 27,647,000*l.* and the ways and means at 27,945,000*l.* leaving a surplus of 198,000*l.* A sum of 2,110.000*l.* however, remained to be raised by new taxes, which were laid on tea, coffee, auctions, bricks, spirits, Scotch stills, certain customs, assessed taxes, stamp duty, and some other articles which were afterwards abandoned as oppressive or unproductive.

The principal business which engaged the attention of parliament before the recess, related to the negotiation for peace with France, of which it will now be necessary to give a succinct account. Lord Malmesbury, who was appointed

by the British government on this important mission, left London on the 15th of October. On the 24th he presented to M. de la Croix, the negotiator on the part of the French Republic, a memorial pressing the establishment of a general principle, as a basis for definitive arrangements. In the first conference after the delivery of this memorial, it was demanded of the British negotiator, whether he was furnished with powers and instructions from the other belligerent powers to negotiate in their name? His lordship answered in the negative; but added, that when the directory should have explained themselves relative to the principle laid down in his memorial, he would despatch couriers to instruct the different courts in the state of the negotiation, and to receive their orders. The English ambassador was then asked, whether he could not at least specify the principle of retrocessions which concerned the French Republic and Great Britain? His lordship replied, that after the directory should have explained itself, he would likewise send couriers for instructions upon this point. All this the directory chose to consider as dilatory, and expressed their belief that the British government meant by the present proposition only a renewal, under a more amicable form, of Mr. Wickham's proposals last year; they also disagreed with the memorial respecting the subject of the basis of negotiation, which ought not to relate to the principle of cession, but to the common necessity of a just and solid peace; nevertheless, they would not reject any means of reconciliation; and intimated, that as soon as lord Malmesbury should produce sufficient powers from the allies of Great Britain to stipulate for their respective interests, they would give a speedy answer to the propositions which might be submitted to them.

On the 12th of November, lord Malmesbury having received some further instructions from his court, presented another note to M. de la Croix, importing, that with regard to the injurious and offensive insinuations contained in the last answer of the directory, the king had thought it beneath his dignity to allow any reply whatever to be returned on his part. M. de la Croix returned, in the name of the directory, an abrupt answer the same day, demanding that the English ambassador would point out directly the objects of reciprocal compensation which he had to propose; and reminded

him, that the breaking off of the armistice by the emperor and king was no sign of a disposition in him to conclude a peace upon equitable terms. After some farther correspondence, the British plenipotentiary delivered to M. de la Croix, on the 17th of December, a confidential memorial, containing the principal objects of restitution, compensation, and reciprocal arrangements. These were, FIRST, his Britannic majesty demands the restitution to his majesty the emperor and king, of all his dominions, on the footing of the *status ante bellum*. 2. The establishment of peace between the Germanic empire and France, conformable to the general safety of Europe. 3. The evacuation of Italy by the French troops, with an engagement not to interfere with the internal affairs of that country, which should be established, as far as possible, upon the footing of the *status ante bellum*. SECONDLY, with regard to the other allies of his Britannic majesty, he demanded that there should be reserved to her majesty the empress of all the Russians a full and unlimited power of taking part in this negotiation whenever she might think fit, or of acceding to the definitive treaty, and thereby returning to a state of peace with France. THIRDLY, his Britannic majesty demanded that the queen of Portugal might be comprehended in this negotiation, and might return to a state of peace with France, without any cession or burthensome conditions on either side. FOURTHLY, on these conditions his majesty offered to France the entire and unreserved restitution of all the conquests which he had made on that power in the East and West Indies. His majesty offered, in like manner, the restitution of the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and of the fishery of Newfoundland, on the footing of *status ante bellum*. But if, in addition to this, his majesty were to wave the right given to him by the treaty of Utrecht, of opposing the cession of the Spanish port of St. Domingo to France, he would then demand, in return, a compensation which might secure, in some degree, the maintenance of the balance of the respective possessions in that part of the world. FIFTHLY, in all the cases of cession or restitution which might come in question in this negociation, there was to be granted on each side to all individuals the most unlimited right to withdraw, with their families and their property, and to sell their land and

other immovable possessions; and adequate arrangements were also to be made, in the course of the negotiation, for the removal of all sequestrations, and for the satisfaction of the just claims which individuals of either side might have to make upon either government.

Another confidential memorial was then given, in which, with respect to Holland, it is asserted, that his Britannic majesty and his allies find themselves too nearly interested in the political situation of these provinces, to be able to consent in their favour to the re-establishment of the *status ante bellum* with regard to territorial possessions, unless France could, on her part, reinstate them in all respects in the same political situation in which they stood before the war. And with respect to Spain, that if the catholic king should desire to be comprehended in this negotiation, or to be allowed to accede to the definitive treaty, this would meet with no obstacle on the part of his majesty.

The purport of the French negotiator's observations on these conditions was, that the first memorial appeared to him to be liable to insurmountable objections; that it seemed to him to require much more than it conceded, and in the event, not to leave France in a situation of proportionate greatness to the other powers of Europe. He said, the act of their constitution, according to the manner in which it was interpreted by the best publicists, made it impossible to do what the memorial required. The Austrian Netherlands were annexed to France; they could not be disposed of without throwing the nation into all the confusion which must follow a convocation of the primary assemblies. Lord Malmesbury said, that by the treaties existing between his Britannic majesty and the emperor, the two contracting parties reciprocally promise not to lay down their arms without the restitution of all the dominions and territories which may have belonged to either of them before the war. To this M. de la Croix replied, that the present government would be reprehensible in the extreme, and deserve impeachment, if they ever suffered the Netherlands to be restored: that Russia, Austria, and Prussia had, by the partition of Poland, increased their power in a most formidable degree; that England, by her conquests, had redoubled her strength, and was enabled by her Indian empire alone, to subsidize all the powers of Europe against

France; and that her monopoly of trade had put her in possession of a fund of inexhaustible wealth.

In the course of this conversation, lord Malmesbury informed the French minister, that he must not harbour any expectation that his majesty would relax, or ever consent to see the Netherlands remain a part of France. The day after this conversation, lord Malmesbury received a note from the Directory, through the hands of M. de la Croix, desiring him to sign the confidential note, which had been sent without a signature, and to deliver, within twenty-four hours, his *ultimatum* signed by him. His lordship having complied with the former request, received on the 19th of December a note from the Directory informing him, in answer to his two notes of the 17th and 18th December, that the French Executive Directory will listen to no proposals contrary to the constitution, to the laws, and to the treaties which bind the republic. His lordship was also ordered to depart from Paris in eight and forty hours.

In consequence of this hasty termination of an embassy on which the public expectation had been anxiously fixed, a message was delivered to the house of commons from his majesty, stating that his majesty, with great concern, acquainted the commons that his earnest endeavours to effect the restoration of peace had been unhappily frustrated, and that the negotiation in which he had been engaged had been abruptly broken off by the peremptory refusal of the French government to treat, except upon a basis evidently inadmissible, and by their having, in consequence, required his majesty's plenipotentiary to quit Paris. On the 30th of December this message was taken into consideration, and although some difference of opinion seemed to prevail as to the importance of the Netherlands as a *sine qua non*, only thirty-seven members voted against the opinion of his majesty's ministers on the whole of the negotiation.

A. D. 1797.

The attention of parliament soon after its reassembling was called to an affair of great national importance. On the 26th of February a resolution was adopted by the privy-council, prohibiting the directors of the bank from issuing any cash, till the sense of the legislature should have been taken with regard to the extraordinary state of affairs. The cause of this order

was, that the frequent exportation of bullion and cash had concurred with the practice of hoarding, promoted by the late alarms, to render coin extremely scarce; and so great a demand of it arose in different parts of the country, that the pecuniary exchange of the notes of the Bank became a matter of extreme difficulty and inconvenience. On the 28th the house of commons appointed a committee for examining the affairs of the Bank, who reported a very favourable view of their finances, but the prohibition of payments in cash was ordered to be continued for a certain time. The Bank were, however, empowered to issue notes of two pounds and one pound, and a great quantity of dollars were stamped and issued, which relieved the public considerably. In time, the alarm occasioned by these measures gradually wore off, and the inconvenience from want of cash began to be felt less and less as public confidence returned.

On the 26th of April a second budget was opened by the chancellor of the exchequer, who intimated that the progressive demands of the year might be expected to exceed fifteen millions, exclusive of the former supplies of the session. The loan for which he had agreed was for fourteen millions and a half, out of which a million and a half would be charged to Ireland; but stipulations had been made for an ulterior loan of above three millions and a half, if it should be thought expedient to gratify the emperor with further advances. The new taxes to raise the sum of 1,284,000*l.* were, additional stamps on agreements, copies of deeds, private transfers of property, newspapers, plate, bills of exchange, and some others, which were afterwards abandoned for taxes on horses, coals, pepper, clocks and watches, and Scotch spirits. The session closed on the 20th of July. Much of the latter part of it was taken up in debates on the removal of ministers, and on schemes for quelling a most dangerous mutiny in the navy, which was happily effected, and the principal agents of it punished with death.

While the nation at large, and the city of London in particular, were in a state of alarm, owing to the stoppage of payment at the Bank, an event happened which diverted public attention to a more pleasing object. This was the glorious victory achieved by Sir John Jervis. This able

officer had cruised for some time in expectation of meeting with the Spanish fleet; and he was at length apprized by his scouts that the enemy had been discerned at the distance of only four leagues. Notwithstanding that his fleet consisted of only fifteen sail of the line, and that of the enemy apparently amounted to no less than twenty-five, he determined to engage them. Having arranged his ships in the most compact order, he sailed with such expedition, that he reached the Spanish fleet before it was disposed with due regularity or connexion. He had so strong a confidence in the valour and discipline of his men, that he did not scruple to depart from the ordinary system, as a considerable degree of enterprize seemed requisite at the commencement of a war with the Spaniards. He therefore passed through their fleet, in a line rapidly formed, and, by tacking, separated one third of it from the main body. After a conflict, which continued about five hours, he defeated the enemy, and captured four ships, namely, two of 112 guns, one of 84, and one of 74. It was then found that the whole Spanish fleet consisted of twenty-seven sail of the line. In this engagement, which took place near Cape St. Vincent on the 14th of February, 300 men were killed or wounded on the part of the victors; but in the ships which were taken, the list of those who lost their lives, or were wounded, amounted, according to the account given by admiral Jervis, to 603. As a reward for this gallant action, the honours of the peerage were conferred upon the commander, by the title of Earl St. Vincent, Lord Jervis.

During the summer, it has already been noticed, a very dangerous mutiny broke out in the navy at Portsmouth, which, after being apparently quelled, recurred a second time with more alarming symptoms, and continued with great obstinacy for some weeks, when the mutineers became divided among themselves, and the majority returned to their duty, after giving up the ringleaders.

During the last session of parliament it was resolved, that a plenipotentiary should be sent to France for a renewal of negotiation. A letter from Lord Grenville, proposing a treaty, was politely answered by the French minister, and the scene of conference was fixed at Lisle. Accordingly lord Malmesbury was again deputed as the negotiator on the part of Great Britain, and Letourneur on the part of the French republic.

The negotiation commenced in the beginning of July; but such insurmountable difficulties were created by the conduct of the ruling party in France, that lord Malmesbury returned to England in September, without effecting the object of his mission.

The nation certainly felt this second disappointment of their hopes, but no blame was thrown upon the British ministry or their negotiator, and an event now took place, which dismissed all consideration of the treaty, and created in the minds of all men a proud exultation.

This was a naval victory, more glorious than any we have yet recorded, which was gained by the British fleet, commanded by admiral Duncan, over the Dutch fleet. This latter had been long prevented from quitting the Texel; but when admiral Duncan, who commanded the British fleet on that station, had retired for the purpose of refitting, the Dutch took the opportunity of sailing out of their usual place of refuge. Captain Trollope observed their motions, and gave seasonable notice to the admiral, who hastily advanced with his fleet, consisting of fourteen sail of the line, and two ships of fifty guns. De Winter, the Dutch admiral, had fifteen large ships under his command, and he prepared for the conflict with firmness and intrepidity. An engagement ensued on the 11th of October, near that part of the coast on which stands the village of Camperdown. It was the grand aim of admiral Duncan to break the line of his adversaries; and he found means to get between them and the land. The first attack was directed to their rear, and was conducted by vice-admiral Onslow, who, in the Monarch, distinguished himself by the vigour of the charge, while the other ships of his division took a very active part. The gallant admiral, in the Venerable, soon made way through the line of the Dutch, and their van and centre were fiercely attacked. At length De Winter's ship was so injured as to be indefensible, and he struck his flag. In the whole, nine sail of the line and two frigates were captured by the English. In this engagement above seven hundred and fifty men were killed or wounded in the British fleet: the loss of the vanquished was much more considerable, they having 540 killed and 620 wounded. Nothing could exceed the national rejoicing on account of this victory. The gallant admiral was created a peer, by the title of Viscount Duncan, and admiral Onslow was made a

baronet. In December a day of solemn national thanksgiving was appointed for the three great naval victories achieved by lord Howe, and admirals Jervis and Duncan, and on that day their majesties went in procession to St. Paul's cathedral, accompanied by the members of both houses of parliament.

Notwithstanding the brilliant success of the British navy in the year 1797, the enemy did not relax from the activity necessary to present a formidable appearance. On the meeting of parliament in January 1798, his majesty intimated that he had received intelligence of measures taken in France, apparently in pursuance of a design of attempting the invasion of these kingdoms. This communication produced the most active measures: besides a bill, imposing a triple assessment of taxes, some members of parliament expressed an intention of contributing beyond the amount of the demand, and the directors of the bank were authorised to receive voluntary subscriptions, which soon amounted to a very considerable sum. His majesty subscribed 20,000*l.* and the queen 5,000*l.* and all inferior ranks vied with each other in this sacrifice at the altar of patriotism. It was also carried in parliament to call out a part of the supplementary militia, to obtain an account of the number of persons able and willing to defend their country, and to authorise his majesty to require their active service in case of emergency. This was followed in every part of the country, by associations of reputable housekeepers and gentlemen, who enrolled themselves in volunteer corps, learned the military exercise, and were soon qualified by strict discipline, as well as firm resolution, to protect the country from internal commotions and foreign invasion. Among other subjects of finance proposed in this session, was a plan for the redemption of the land tax, which was carried after some ineffectual opposition.

Provision having been made for the aggregate supply for the year, the bill for suspending the *habeas corpus* was passed, in consequence of a message from his majesty, intimating that preparations for the embarkation of warlike stores and troops were carried on with considerable and increasing activity in the ports of France, Flanders, and Holland, and that the French were encouraged, in their scheme of invasion, by the correspondence and communication of traitorous and

disaffected persons and societies in this kingdom. Several persons were accordingly apprehended on the charge of corresponding with the enemy, particularly Arthur O'Connor, an Irish gentleman, and some others, who were afterwards tried at Maidstone and acquitted, except one O'Coigly, who was convicted and executed. The session of parliament concluded on the twenty-ninth of June.

The incidents of the war were not as yet very important. As the small islands of St. Marcou, near La Hogue, had been seized by the English, and were used as posts of observation, the French, on the seventh of May, sent a flotilla of gun-boats to dislodge them, which were repulsed with very considerable loss. On the other hand, the English were unsuccessful in an attempt to destroy the sluices and other works at Ostend. But these inferior objects soon gave way to the consideration of a dangerous rebellion which now broke out in Ireland. The disaffection among the lower classes in this country had been artfully exasperated by some men of influence and education, and their machinations were not wholly unknown to government.

They expected assistance from France; but whether that was not well concerted, or they thought themselves strong enough to begin the attack, it is certain they resolved not to wait for the French. The twenty-third of May was the day appointed for the rebellious attack of the capital: but the strong measures adopted by government prevented the execution, and some of the leaders, among whom was lord Edward Fitzgerald, were apprehended and imprisoned. He, indeed, was so severely wounded in resisting those who came to take him into custody, as not long to survive the disappointment of his schemes. On the twenty-fourth, however, about one thousand men, armed with pikes and muskets, approached the town of Naas, and made an assault upon the king's troops; but being firmly opposed, they fled with precipitation, leaving about a hundred dead. Various engagements in different places were fought about this time, in all which the rebels were defeated with great loss. In the mean while the marquis Cornwallis was sent over as lord lieutenant, in the room of earl Camden. His excellency announced that a pardon would be granted for offences committed on or before a certain day, upon such terms and with such exceptions as might be compatible with justice.

In the mean time, the house of commons in Ireland, having fully developed the schemes of treason, delivered a long report, in which it was stated, that the *Society of United Irishmen* had been formed in 1791; that from its commencement, the real purpose of those who were at the head of the institution, was to separate Ireland from Great Britain, and to subvert the established constitution; but that for some time they did not avow their real aims; that a direct communication was at length opened with the French, whose concurrence was solicited and promised; that in 1796 arms and ammunition were provided by the party, and the most active system of terror was put in operation against magistrates, jurors, and all who ventured to support the laws: that the orders for disarming the malcontents, and other measures of government checked for a time the outrages of faction: but that the spirit of sedition and treason revived before the close of 1797: that Arthur O'Connor, who had been acquitted at Maidstone, and lord Edward Fitzgerald, were among the leaders of the party: that the French were repeatedly urged to send succours; and that the conspirators would not at last have rebelled without such aid, if the vigorous measures of the court had not rendered it necessary for them to rise at once, or to abandon their purpose. Such is the outline of the conspiracy, in which it is evident, that the artifices of a few leaders had deluded the mass of people into a belief, that they were acting for the cause of their interest and liberties.

The populace were rapidly submitting to the terms of pardon offered, when about one thousand French disembarked at Killala on the 12th of August. Very few of the natives at first joined this body: and the lord lieutenant marched in person with a considerable army to prevent an augmentation of their numbers. Before his excellency appeared, they attacked the king's troops under general Lake at Castlebar, and compelled him to retire, as he was in an unprepared state: on the eighth of September, however, he encountered the enemy at Ballingamuck, and after a short resistance they surrendered.

This accelerated the submission of the greater part of the united Irishmen, but occasional depredations and outrages were still committed in different quarters. On the sixteenth of December, a French brig made a descent on the coast of Donegal, but hearing of the late defeat, retired. A fresh in-

vasion, however, being meditated by the enemy, every precaution became necessary at sea. On the eleventh of October Sir J. B. Warren discovered some French ships near the Irish coast, and brought them to action next morning. They consisted of the Hoche, a ship of the line, and eight frigates: the Hoche was captured, and the frigates attempted to sail away, but three of them were taken the same day and three afterwards: these vessels contained a considerable number of soldiers, and some of the Irish malcontents; among the latter was Theobald Wolfe Tone, a man of some talents, who had acted as a negociator at Paris, and who was now condemned to death, but prevented a public execution by suicide.

Convinced of their inability to make a successful descent upon the British islands, the French government projected the reduction of Egypt, designing at some future opportunity, to penetrate to India, either by the way of the Red Sea or by the Persian Gulf. Accordingly a considerable expedition sailed from Toulon in May, under the command of general Buonaparte and admiral Brueys. On the 9th of June they appeared before Malta, and made themselves masters of that island; and on the first of July their military forces were debarked at Alexandria. A series of successful engagements with the natives and Turks elated the spirits of the invaders; but whilst they contemplated the subjugation of Egypt as inevitable, a most unexpected reverse of fortune awaited them. On the first of August the British admiral Nelson appeared off the mouth of the Nile, and discovered the French fleet lying at anchor in the bay of Aboukir. Admiral Brueys' ship had one hundred and twenty guns, and above one thousand men; three had eighty guns each, and nine seventy-four.

They were drawn up near the shore, in a compact and strong line of battle, flanked by four frigates, and many gun-boats, and protected in the van by a battery, planted on a small island. The English admiral was not deterred by this appearance from making the attack. He had as many ships of the line as the French admiral, and he strengthened the line by the introduction of a ship of fifty guns: but, in approaching the enemy he was deprived of the assistance of the Culloden, of seventy-four, as it struck upon a shoal, from which it could not be extricated before the next morning.

Admiral Nelson was very desirous of breaking the line of the French, and surrounding a part of their fleet; and he

executed his purpose with great ability and courage. At sunset the engagement commenced: and both parties fought with great spirit. While the victory was yet undecided, admiral Brueys received two wounds; and having changed his situation he was exposed to a fresh shot, by which he was killed. When the action had continued for two hours, two of the French ships were taken; a third struck soon after, and the whole van was in the power of the English, who eagerly proceeded to a completion of their victory. L'Orient, the particular ship of the French commander, was warmly engaged with several of the hostile vessels, when an explosion indicated the danger of a conflagration, and soon after she blew up, a small number only of the crew escaping. The engagement was prosecuted at intervals till day-break; and only two of the French ships of the line and two frigates escaped. The loss in the British fleet amounted to sixteen officers, and two hundred and two seamen and marines killed, and six hundred and seventy-seven wounded. That of the French is supposed to have amounted to a much greater number. After this victory, admiral Nelson left part of his fleet to blockade the port of Alexandria, where Buonaparte had disembarked his troops; and sailed towards Sicily.

The intelligence of this glorious and important victory diffused extraordinary joy throughout every part of the British dominions. Numerous congratulations were presented to his majesty, the admiral was honoured with a peerage, by the title of Lord Nelson of the Nile, and a day was appropriated for a solemn thanksgiving. This victory, while it gave fresh splendour to the unexampled series of our naval triumphs, promised, in its consequences, the most important effects on the general state of affairs, and as mentioned in the royal speech, afforded an opening, which, if improved by suitable exertions on the part of other powers, might lead to the general deliverance of Europe from the French yoke. The emperor of Russia was now induced to engage in the contest; the Turks, and the king of Naples likewise joined the confederacy; and several victories were obtained over the French, both in Italy and on the banks of the Rhine. The British cabinet, considering this a favourable opportunity for reinstating the prince of Orange, seut a powerful armament to Holland, under the command of the duke of York and admiral Mitchell. The Dutch fleet in the Texel, consisting of eight

vessels, surrendered to the British admiral; and the duke obtained some victories as he proceeded into the country; but as the Dutch were unwilling to co-operate, and as the French had received considerable reinforcements, it became necessary to fall back, and re-embark the troops for England.

While such was the state of affairs in Europe, Buonaparte arrived in France, after making his escape from Egypt in a small vessel, without the knowledge of his army. Scarcely had he, to the astonishment of all France, landed on its shores, than he found the French, whose internal affairs had been for some time wretchedly conducted, ripe for another revolution. This he speedily effected by the assistance of some troops and his personal influence, and established a new constitution, placing himself at the head of it, in quality of Chief Consul. His first act of authority was to enter into a correspondence with the sovereigns at war with France, proposing a negociation for peace. The British ministry, after diverting this correspondence from his majesty personally into its proper channel, rejected his proposals, from a doubt of his sincerity or the stability of his new government. The other powers were equally indisposed to treat with him. On this, in the commencement of 1800, the Chief Consul prepared for a renewal of the war: orders were given for new levies to recruit the weakened armies, and loans were negociated, both in France and Holland. The campaign was opened in April, with considerable success on the part of the Austrians in Italy.

On the Rhine, the campaign was opened near the close of April, and at first was unfavourable to the French arms. A battle was fought on the 5th of May between the Austrian general Kray, and the French general Moreau, which was contended with great spirit; the French are said to have lost the greatest number of men. This is usually called the battle of Meskirch. At length Buonaparte headed in person the army of reserve, and their progress was rapid and decisive. The cities of Milan, Pavia, &c. were again retaken, and an important victory was gained on the ninth of June over the Austrians, near Casteggio. But the most decisive of all, usually termed the battle of Marengo, was fought on the 14th of June; which, after many vicissitudes, the Austrians being at one time victorious, ended in the defeat of the latter with prodigious loss. The French reported that three

thousand were killed, five thousand wounded, and seven thousand taken prisoners. The Imperial Gazette, however, reckons the killed, wounded, and prisoners at nine thousand and sixty-nine, of which number five thousand two hundred and seventy-four were captives.

The consequences of this victory were highly important to the French, and, joined to their successes in other quarters, led to an armistice, and this to a negociation, signed by the count St. Julien on the part of the emperor, but which did not produce a decisive treaty. The total defection, however, of the emperor of Russia from the confederacy, and other unfavourable circumstances, inclined the court of Vienna to another armistice, the terms of which were afterwards arranged.

We have already mentioned, that the design of the French, in their expedition to Egypt, was to open a communication by which they might hereafter co-operate with the enemies of Great Britain in India. Nearly about the time, however, that they had effected their purpose in landing in Egypt, the principal foe of the British in India, Tippoo Sahib, was doomed to lose his life and dominions in a short but successful war which the English were compelled to declare against him. The active operations of this war were conducted by general Harris, who besieged and took Seringapatam, the capital of Tippoo's dominions. Among the slain was found the body of the tyrant, near one of the gates, among a heap of his lifeless subjects.

The union of Great Britain with Ireland had been for some time a favourite object with the British ministry; and on the 21st of April an act was passed, fixing the commencement of that union for the first day of the nineteenth century; and the parliament of the united kingdom was summoned to meet on the 22nd day of January, 1801. Proclamations were also issued respecting the alterations to take place in his majesty's titles, arms, flags, &c.

A change in the ministry now took place, supposed to have principally resulted from a difference of opinion in the cabinet on the question of catholic emancipation in Ireland. Mr. Pitt and his friends resigned their high situations, after some delay, principally occasioned by a temporary indisposition with which his majesty was visited; and they were succeeded by Mr. Addington, formerly speaker of the house

of commons, as first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer; by lords Hawkesbury and Pelham, as secretaries of state; and lord Eldon, late chief justice of the common pleas, as lord high chancellor.

England was placed at this time in a situation which required wisdom and promptitude in acting. The northern powers, instigated by Paul, emperor of Russia, had entered into an hostile confederacy, and were, in a considerable measure, become the allies of France. An armament was, therefore, fitted out in the British ports, consisting of seventeen sail of the line, &c., under the command of sir Hyde Parker and lord Nelson. This fleet sailed from Yarmouth on the 12th of March, and triumphantly passed the Sound, which had always been deemed impassable, and reached the capital of Denmark. The Danes had made considerable preparations. The attack, however, was instantly made by the English fleet; and after a very severe engagement, lord Nelson offered a cessation of arms, which the Danes agreed to: they had lost eighteen ships, and Copenhagen was in the utmost danger. An armistice, therefore, was now concluded, and the death of the emperor Paul completely dissolved the confederacy.

In Egypt a new turn had been given to the war. A considerable force, despatched from Great Britain under the command of sir Ralph Abercrombie, effected a landing on the seventh of March, notwithstanding the greatest obstacles, and on the 13th gave battle to a part of the French army near Alexandria, and completely defeated them. The English followed up their success by a second battle on the 21st of March, about four miles from Alexandria, in which they were likewise completely successful, but with the loss, almost irreparable, of their brave commander, who died on the 28th, of a wound he received in this engagement. These actions may be considered as decisive of the fate of Egypt. The command now devolved upon general Hutchinson, who proceeded towards Alexandria, where the principal force of the enemy was yet concentred. The castle of Rosetta and town were taken, and the French garrison made but a feeble resistance. A force was also detached to Cairo, early in May. On the second of this month, general Hutchinson, with 4000 British, and an equal number of Turks, attacked the French near Ramanich, and compelled them to retreat to Cairo.

On the 22nd of June, the garrison of this place, exceeding 5000 men, capitulated upon terms, and the final conquest of Egypt was completed by an inferior English force, with a bravery unparalleled in the history of this war.

The intelligence of the conclusion of this brilliant campaign was received in England on the same day that the preliminaries of peace were signed by M. Otto, on the part of the French Republic, and lord Hawkesbury on the part of his Britannic Majesty. This negociation had been carried on for some months, but with impenetrable secrecy.

By the definitive treaty which was concluded at Amiens, on the 27th of March, 1802, Great Britain agreed to the restoration of all her conquests, the island of Trinidad and the Dutch possession of Ceylon excepted. The Cape of Good Hope was to remain a free port to all the contracting parties, who were to enjoy the same advantages. The island of Malta was to be evacuated by the British troops, and restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem. Egypt was restored to the Ottoman Porte. The territory of Portugul was to be maintained in its integrity; and the French troops were to evacuate the territory of Rome and Naples. The republic of the seven islands was recognised by France. And the fishery of Newfoundland was established on its former footing.

With regard to the public at large, the peace unquestionably afforded the highest satisfaction. If its terms were not quite so favourable as some predicted, they were at least accommodated to existing circumstances, and they afforded a respite from that enormous load of expenditure which the nature of the war had rendered necessary; while we had the satisfaction to reflect, that throughout a struggle of ten years with the common enemy of Europe, and of constituted authorities, we had preserved our empire, our laws, our constitution, and our religion, from the violence of revolutionary power, and at the same time saw our commerce advance, and our commercial credit unimpaired.

Yet amidst the satisfaction so generally expressed on this occasion, it was not long before symptoms of mutual jealousy appeared between the government of Great Britain and France.

On the part of the British, the hostility of Buonaparte to a commercial treaty, the plunder of Germany, the reduction of Switzerland, and the demands imperiously made for restrain-

ing the liberty of the press in England, were considered as obviously indicative of the dangerous ambition of the French consul; while our refusal to give up Malta, and an attempt to interfere in the concerns of Switzerland, were regarded, by France, as acts of aggression on the part of Great Britain.

The ministry of this country, however, evinced no forwardness to complain, or to give Buonaparte reason to think them inclined to oppose him by any kind of hostility: some increase in the naval and military establishments indeed were made, but nothing hostile appeared on our side before the month of March, 1803, when the intentions of the enemy could no longer be mistaken, and when the points in dispute had been fully canvassed between the First Consul and the British ambassador.

In the mean time an event occurred which interested the country very much in its own preservation. It was generally supposed, that although the seditious societies which assembled in 1794-5, had become less open and less bold in their proceedings in consequence of the laws enacted at that period, and of the spirit of the people at large having been decidedly avowed against their machinations, yet it was suspected that the spirit of treason was by no means entirely suppressed, and that the disaffected party continued to hold a secret correspondence with the enemies of their country. At the head of a party of this kind was colonel Despard, a man who had once performed able services for his country, but either his ambition had been ungratified, or his mind had been corrupted by the worst principles of the French revolution. Certain it was, that as far back as 1797 government were apprised of his treasonable practices, and he was imprisoned during the suspension of the Habeas Corpus act, in the house of correction in Spa-Fields; but on his being liberated in 1802, he entered into a more atrocious conspiracy than had yet been heard of: his plan was to corrupt the principles of the soldiers, and particularly of his majesty's guards: a society was formed, of about thirty obscure individuals, whose numbers, however, it was trusted would soon be increased: their principal object was the murder of the king, at the opening of parliament, while another party was to seize the Tower and the Bank, and to stop the mail coaches, which last measure was to be a signal to the disaffected in the country to march to their assistance. Of this plot, government were aware,

but wisely allowed it to ripen, and evince the designs and guilt of the conspirators, before they interfered. Accordingly on Nov. 16, 1802, about thirty of the conspirators were arrested at the Oakley-arms, in South Lambeth, and committed to prison. Their trials came on in February following, when Despard and five others were convicted upon the clearest evidence, and were executed on the 21st of that month.

The ambition of the First Consul of France, and the reluctance he manifested with respect to commercial relations with this country, became every day more apparent, as well as an inclination to treat Great Britain as a conquered nation. This he evinced by the unjustifiable violence offered to British property in France, and the denial of justice to British subjects in the French courts; he even refused to restore the vessels captured in India by the French, after the signature of the preliminaries was known to both nations. His most distant, though not less obvious designs appeared likewise in his sending a number of persons to Great Britain and Ireland, under the plausible name of commercial commissioners, but who were in fact all military officers, who employed themselves in obtaining such information as could be serviceable only in case of an invasion.

The possession of Malta, however, was laid hold of by the First Consul as the chief object in dispute, and a peremptory demand was made for its evacuation. This brought on a long and protracted negotiation between the French and English courts, which had from the beginning such an aspect, that on the 8th of March, 1803, his Majesty sent a message to both houses of parliament, stating, that as very considerable military preparations were carrying on in the ports of France and Holland, he had judged it expedient to adopt additional measures of precaution for the security of his dominions: that though these preparations were avowedly directed to colonial service, yet, as discussions of great importance were then subsisting between his majesty and the French government, the result of which must at present be uncertain, his majesty was induced to make this communication to his faithful parliament, in full persuasion, that, while they partook of his majesty's earnest and unvarying solicitude for the continuance of peace, he might rely with perfect confidence on their public spirit and liberality to adopt such measures as circumstances might appear to require, for supporting the honour of his

crown and the essential interests of his people. Addresses were voted in both houses in consequence of this message, and a grant made of 10,000 seamen, as an addition to the present number of his majesty's naval forces. On the 10th of March another message was received by the houses, which stated that his majesty had thought it necessary to exercise the powers vested in him by act of parliament for calling out and embodying forthwith the militia.

The negociations alluded to went on for a considerable time, till all probability of agreement having vanished, lord Whitworth left Paris on the 10th of May, about which time the French ambassador, Andreossi, left London, and on the 18th the British government published a declaration of the causes of complaint which they had to allege against France, and this was soon after followed by the issuing of letters of marque and reprisal. All these proceedings received the full sanction of parliament, although not without exciting debates of considerable length and interest.

But before we detail the measures that were taken to provide for the safety of the country in this new war, it will be necessary to notice certain rebellious proceedings in Ireland, which occurred in the summer of 1803, and, according to every probable account, were excited by persons in connexion with the French government. This new conspiracy was conducted principally by Russell, Emmett, and Dowdall, men of some abilities and education, but headstrong, desperate, and grossly unprincipled. Emmett and Russell had been concerned in the rebellion of 1798, and after the war had been allowed to transport themselves. They accordingly took refuge in France, and there appear to have brooded over their supposed wrongs, and to have contrived their scheme. They returned to Ireland in 1802, and remained for some time concealed under fictitious names. In this disguise, however, they found some associates as desperate and unprincipled as themselves, and had the art to procure or manufacture a large quantity of pikes and other arms, at a house in Thomas-street, Dublin. They also contrived to train their associates in some degree, and to provide stores of arms and gunpowder in their respective habitations, all ready to be brought into general service at the appointed time. Their design was to seize the castle of Dublin, to consider the troops of the line as prisoners of war, but to massacre such

of the militia or volunteers as should oppose them. A similar rising was expected in all parts of the country, the signal for which was to be the stopping of the mail-coaches. All this, however, appears to have been mere delusion, for the purposes of partial mischief; a mob they might and did raise, but the spirit of the country was against them. Whether aware of this, or that they thought it necessary to perpetrate something worthy the name of treason, we know not; but they fixed on the 23rd of July as the time of general insurrection. About nine o'clock in the evening of that day the signal was given by the firing of rockets, and the doors of their magazine were opened, when Emmett, Dowdall, and two other miscreants, Quigley and Stafford, rushed out at the head of their followers, and took their station in Thomas-street. The rebels did not exceed fifty, but as they put pikes into the hands of all the mob who were willing to join them, their number soon amounted to about five hundred: still this would have answered no general purpose, had they not been provided with an opportunity to satiate their malice by the shedding of innocent blood.

The malignity of some of the conspirators had induced them to despatch a forged summons to lord Kilwarden, the chief justice of the King's bench, to attend a council on this fatal evening; and it was during the height of the insurrection that this amiable and venerable magistrate, accompanied by his daughter, Miss Wolfe, and his nephew, a clergyman, arrived in Thomas-street, in his way from his country house to the castle. Lord Kilwarden and Mr. Wolfe, his nephew, were inhumanly dragged from the carriage, and pierced with innumerable wounds by the pikemen; but Miss Wolfe, by some means, made her escape to the castle. Colonel Brown, a brave officer, who was hurrying to join his regiment, fell in among the rebels, and was cut to pieces; and others fell a sacrifice to their fury, before the military assembled in sufficient numbers to disperse them, which was not done without considerable slaughter. Emmett, Dowdall, Quigley, and Stafford made their escape, but Emmett was soon taken, and with Russell and some others was afterwards tried and executed. As soon as the news of this massacre reached England, parliament found it necessary to repeal the Habeas Corpus act in Ireland.

The necessity of the war had now become so apparent, that perhaps in no period of our history can we mention an occasion which discovers such unanimity in the support of the nation, as appeared a few weeks after the war was finally determined on. The threatenings of France were no longer disguised; invasion and extermination of the British name and nation were the sole and immediate design they attempted to pursue. The plunder of our island was held forth as an inducement for the armies to volunteer on this service, and even plans were published of the measures intended to be taken when the design should be accomplished.

In all this, however, the French had miscalculated their own power and our incapacity. Great Britain was certainly unwilling to go to war, if it could have been avoided; but for that necessity she was amply prepared. So little interval had taken place since the last war, that neither her naval nor her military spirit had had leisure to subside. Accordingly, a naval force was soon provided nearly double in number and force to what we had possessed at the commencement of any former war. The militia were next embodied, and the act for raising the army of reserve, in the course of a few months, added 30,000 men to the regular force of the country. An act had likewise been past, enabling his majesty to call out the whole mass of the people fit to bear arms, in different classes, and to put a certain proportion of them into immediate training. But the operation of this act was rendered unnecessary, by the voluntary zeal which blazed forth on this, as it never had done on any former, occasion.

The effect of this upon the mind of the First Consul of France was what might have been expected; he collected, indeed, three hundred thousand men on the coast, and had made great progress in preparing them for sea; but he never made the attempt, and found it more easy to revenge himself upon the helpless and unoffending; accordingly, knowing that curiosity and affairs of business had induced many English gentleman to visit France, he ordered them all to be seized as prisoners of war; and in about two months after the commencement of hostilities, the French troops were ordered to overrun and plunder the defenceless state of Hanover. The object of this invasion was evidently to take revenge on his Britannic majesty, as elector of Hanover; but he heard the news with dignified composure, and immediately ordered the

spirited measure of blockading the Elbe, the Weser, the ports of Genoa and Spezia, Havre, and the ports of the Seine; and the intention of government being directed to such of the enemy's possessions abroad as were accessible, the islands of St. Lucia, Tobago, Demerara, and Essequibo, the settlement of Berbice, the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and some others, were captured by the British troops. Several successful attacks were made on the enemy's invading coast, particularly on the port of Granville, the town and fort of Dieppe, and Boulogne, the grand depôt of the invading army, and many of their vessels were destroyed.

The internal government of France, during the last year, underwent a change for which the people had been artfully prepared: the First Consul procured himself at length to be chosen chief magistrate by the title of Emperor, and the imperial dignity confirmed to him and his heirs. He afterwards bestowed the rank of princes on the collateral branches of his family, and the court was in all respects restored to its pristine splendour, and variety of ranks and orders. To all this, the people submitted not only with composure, but with their usual joy and vivacity: no traces of the revolutionary or republican spirit was allowed to remain, and Buonaparte ruled with less control from laws of any kind, than the most despotic prince in ancient or modern times.

At home, the additional supplies for carrying on the war were levied with very little disturbance or complaint, so amply were all convinced that our existence as a people depended on the aid given to government at so critical a period. An attempt was, however, made to procure a stronger administration than that which derived its name from Mr. Addington; and a negociation was set on foot to procure a coalition between the Grenville party and Mr. Fox; Mr. Pitt was also to have a share in the new arrangement; but for some reasons not explicitly avowed, this negociation ended in Mr. Pitt's becoming prime minister, without any of the illustrious colleagues he intended as his associates. Mr. Addington resigned, and was soon after called up to the house of peers by the title of lord Sidmouth.

About the conclusion of the year 1804, the court of Spain issued a formal declaration of war against Great Britain, in consequence of which the British council ordered reprisals and letters of marque to be granted. The conduct of the

Spanish court was on this occasion considered as a matter of constraint, resulting from the fear of offending the Emperor of France, who was now committing unprecedented acts of violence and outrage, and began to regard his allies as vassals, bound to comply with his will in all its capricious changes, and however repugnant to their inclination or interests. In consequence of these transactions, those other powers of Europe, which had yet possessed some degree of independence, but who saw no security in any species of treaty or security which France could offer, began to increase their armies and prepare for war. Prussia only, partly from fear and partly from short-sighted policy, determined to preserve its neutrality, with the feeble hope that it would be respected by France, and offered to mediate between France and Russia. This, however, was refused by Russia, unless the French Emperor would admit Great Britain to negotiate at the same time, which was no part of his policy. Buonaparte had, indeed, in the beginning of 1805, made offers to negotiate, by a letter addressed personally to his Majesty, whose answer, conveyed by Lord Mulgrave, Secretary of State, intimated that his Majesty could not enter into a farther discussion without communication with his allies, and particularly with the Emperor of Russia.

In the mean time, Austria, alarmed at the march of some new French troops into Italy, demanded an explanation, which was evaded; and in the month of March, the Emperor of France declared himself king of Italy; but professed, that from the period of its being evacuated by foreign armies, he would transmit the crown of Italy to one of his male children, whether natural or adopted. Accordingly, by this sole act of arbitrary power, he was crowned at Milan in the 26th of May, with great pomp; as a farther infraction on the independence of that country, Genoa was annexed to France. This last violence put an end to all hopes of pacification with Russia, and both there and in the Austrian dominions, the most formidable preparations for war were carried on, and treaties entered into with Great Britain for such assistance as she might be willing to afford.

In other respects, the war was hitherto, on the part of Great Britain, of the defensive kind, as far as concerned military operations. The navy, however, which blockaded all the ports of the enemy, and began to cover the seas, had its

usual success, in capturing a prodigious number of ships of war and commerce. France continued its menaces of invasion, and at one time had collected upwards of three hundred thousand men on the coast most adjacent and likely to further its purposes. The disputes, however, with Russia and Germany soon rendered it necessary to detach a great proportion of this force into other parts of Europe : and Buonaparte, with an ambition which universal empire only seemed sufficient to gratify, found a new enemy in every new acquisition of territory. In order to further his views of Germany, which amidst the most hypocritical professions of forbearance. were regular, preconcerted, and systematic, he endeavoured to separate the head of that empire from the members, declaring that he would consider all aggressions which might be attempted against the German body, and especially against Bavaria, as formal declarations of war, and that he would never separate the interests of the empire from those of the princes of Germany who were attached to him.

The Austrians, contemning these menaces, passed the river Inn, and entered the Bavarian territories, with a force estimated at fifty-five thousand men, while the hereditary states came forward in support of their sovereign with an enthusiasm worthy of the best period of their history. The preparations on the part of Russia were no less extensive. It was generally understood that Austria had prepared above three hundred thousand, Russia one hundred and eighty thousand, and that the militia of Tyrol might be estimated at twenty thousand men. Such a force seemed to promise success, but such was the want of conduct or concert between these allied powers, and such the expedition of the French in bringing on engagements before the allies had matured their plans, that the war proved wholly disadvantageous to the latter, and was attended with reverses of the most disastrous kind.

The French army crossed the Rhine on the 25th and 26th of September, 1805, in three divisions, and succeeded in bringing the Austrians to action before they were joined by the Russians, and defeated them at Wertingen and Gunsburgh, with considerable loss.

The defeat of the Austrian army had as yet been only partial, but on the 13th of October Marshal Soult surrounded Memingen, which capitulated, with a garrison of nine battalions. On the 19th the Austrians made a sortie from Ulm,

and attacked the French division under Dupont, by which they were defeated with the loss of fifteen hundred prisoners. In a few days, Ulm, which was commanded by the Austrian general Mack, surrendered to the French under circumstances of a very suspicious kind: and at the battles of Wertingen, Gunsburgh, Memingen, Ulm, and some inferior actions, the Austrians were computed to have lost forty thousand men.

The junction of the Austrians and Russians, which was at first attended with appearances of success, finally led only to a more signal and decisive action, in which the French, by their superiority in numbers, were completely victorious. This, which is generally known by the name of the battle of Austerlitz, was fought on the second of December. The Russian army consisted of fifty thousand men, and the Austrian of not quite twenty-five thousand, both which numbers were grossly exaggerated in the French accounts. The French amounted to nearly one hundred thousand, commanded by Buonaparte, and the ablest of his generals. The consequence was an armistice between the hostile armies, signed on the sixth, and a treaty of peace was concluded at Presburgh, on the twenty-sixth. According to the terms of this treaty, France was to continue in possession of the territories beyond the Alps, and the emperor of Germany was to acknowledge Buonaparte as king of Italy; but the latter agreed to separate the crown of Italy, and not to unite it again on the same head. The cessions on the part of the emperor of Germany were sufficiently humiliating: on the other hand, the emperor Napoleon guaranteed the integrity of the Empire of Austria in the state to which he had now reduced it, as well as the integrity of the house of Austria.

The Russian army, after the battle of Austerlitz, kept the field until next morning, and when the armistice was concluded on the part of the emperor of Germany, at his particular request, commenced their retreat, which was effected in good order, and without loss, notwithstanding the assertion of the French, that during the negotiations with Austria their army prosecuted its victories.

While the emperor Napoleon was thus triumphing over Austria, dictating the most mortifying terms, and extending his continental power, and at the very moment he was declaring that he wanted only ships, colonies, and commerce, his views were baffled by a victory on the part of the British

navy, more glorious and decisive than can be paralleled in history.

Vice-admiral Lord Nelson had the command of the fleet destined to watch the Spanish harbour of Cadiz, which at that time contained the combined fleets of France and Spain. On the 19th of October it was communicated to his lordship that this fleet had put to sea, and as he concluded that their destination was the Mediterranean, he immediately made all sail for the entrance of the Straits, with the British squadron, consisting of twenty-seven ships, three of them sixty-fours. On Monday the 21st, at day-light, the enemy was discovered off Cape Trafalgar. The commander-in-chief immediately made the signal for the fleet to bear up in two columns, as they formed in order of sailing; a mode of attack which he had previously directed, to avoid the inconvenience and delay in forming a line of battle in the usual manner, while he gave out as the signal, "England expects every man to do his duty." Never was expectation more amply fulfilled, nor orders obeyed with more perfect regularity and effect. The enemy's line consisted of thirty-three ships, of which eighteen were French and fifteen Spanish; the French under admiral Villeneuve, who was also commander-in-chief, and the Spaniards under admiral Gravina.

The action began at twelve o'clock, by the leading ships of the columns breaking through the enemy's line; the commander-in-chief about the tenth ship from the van, and admiral Collingwood about the twelfth from the rear, leaving the van of the enemy unoccupied, the succeeding ships breaking through in all parts, astern of their leaders, and engaging the enemy at the muzzles of their guns. The conflict was severe, and the enemy fought with acknowledged bravery; but the impulse of British skill and courage was irresistible. About three in the afternoon many of the French and Spanish ships having struck their colours, their line gave way. Admiral Gravina, with ten ships, joining their frigates to leeward, stood towards Cadiz. The five headmost ships in their van tacked, and standing to the southward, to windward of the British line, were engaged, and the sternmost of them taken; the others went off, leaving to his majesty's squadron nineteen ships of the line, of which two were first rates, with Villeneuve, commander-in-chief, and two other flag officers.

Such a battle could not be fought without sustaining a great loss of men. The number of killed, however, did not exceed four hundred and twenty-three, nor that of the wounded eleven hundred and sixty-four. The gallant Nelson, however, already immortalized by the battle of Aboukir, fell in the arms of victory, just as he had achieved the present more extensive and memorable defeat of the enemy. About the middle of the action his lordship received a musket-ball in his left breast, which was aimed at him from the top of the ship with which he was engaged. On his being carried below, he complained of acute pain in the breast, and of privation of sense and motion of the body and inferior extremities: his respiration became short and difficult: his pulse small, weak, and irregular; he frequently declared that his back seemed shot through; that he felt every instant a gush of blood within his breast, and that he had sensations which indicated to him the approach of death. In the course of an hour his pulse became indistinct, his extremities and forehead cold; but he retained his wonted energy of mind and exercise of his faculties, to the latest moment of his existence: and when victory, as signal as decisive, was announced to him, he expressed his grateful acknowledgments and heartfelt satisfaction at the glorious event, in the most emphatic language. He delivered his last orders with his usual precision, and in a few minutes after expired without a struggle.

The battle of Trafalgar was immediately followed by an action eminently worthy to accompany its glories. Sir Richard Strachan, while cruising off Ferrol with four ships of the line, one of eighty and three of seventy-four guns, fell in with what he conceived to be a squadron of the French that set sail from Rochfort, and consisted likewise of four ships of the line of the same weight of metal. A most gallant action immediately commenced, and terminated in the total defeat and capture of these ships, which the conqueror then discovered to be part of the Cadiz fleet that had retreated from the battle of Trafalgar. Of the whole, therefore, of that combined fleet of thirty-three sail of the line, four only escaped, the rest being either taken or destroyed.

The intelligence of this victory was received at home with mingled sensations of joy and regret. It was impossible not to appreciate the value of so brilliant a success, but the loss of the distinguished admiral to whom chiefly it was due, dif-

fused a sensation of the deepest sorrow, which was manifested by every public testimoney of regard for his memory. His remains having been brought to England, were interred in St. Paul's cathedral.

Nor was this the only circumstance which cast a damp on what would otherwise have gladdened the public mind. Notwithstanding our firm and justifiable reliance on our navy, which had done all that a navy could do, the critical state of the affairs of Europe could not fail to impress the apprehension, that it was no longer possible to restrain the ambition of the French sovereign, and that the few remaining independent states, without more vigour and concert than had yet been discovered in their proceedings, must soon become either the allies or vassals of a power which had given many proofs that it was no longer to be controled by the accustomed laws of justice and the rights of nations.

On the meeting of parliament, Jan. 21, 1806, these matters were introduced in the opening speech, when his Majesty congratulated the country on the late glorious victory, which had not only confirmed in the most signal manner our maritime superiority, but had essentially contributed to the security of his Majesty's dominions. It was also stated, that although the emperor of Germany had felt himself compelled to withdraw from the contest, his Majesty continued to receive from the emperor of Russia the strongest assurances of unshaken adherence to that generous and enlightened policy by which he had hitherto been actuated.

The two houses then proceeded to the ordinary business of the session, which was very soon interrupted by an event that deranged the plans of administration and led to some important changes. We allude to the death of the Right Hon. William Pitt, a minister of high and acknowledged talent, who with a short interval of retirement in 1801, had held the first office of the state for twenty-three years. His health had been for some time in a state of decline, exhibiting symptoms of general debility, mixed with an hereditary gout, which put an end to his life on the 23rd of January, and in the forty-seventh year of his age. There was reason to think that his death was accelerated by excessive anxiety and attention to business, and that the reverses experienced by our allies on the continent had contributed not a little to exasperate his disorder. Sensible that the nation had lost a

minister of transcendant abilities, the parliament ordered a public funeral and monument, and every mark of respect was paid to his memory.

Soon after Mr. Pitt's death, his colleagues in office unanimously resigned their situations, and within a few weeks an administration was formed, partly of those who had formerly acted with Mr. Pitt during his long administration, extending from 1783 to 1801, and partly of those who had always spoken and voted in opposition to his measures. Among the former were lord Grenville, earl Spencer, and lord Sidmouth; and among the latter, Mr. Erskine, Mr. Grey, Mr. Sheridan, and Mr. Fox. Lord Grenville was appointed first lord of the treasury; Mr. Fox, earl Spencer, and Mr. Windham, secretaries of state; lord Henry Petty, second son of the marquis of Lansdowne, chancellor of the exchequer; Mr. Grey, first lord of the admiralty; Mr. Sheridan, treasurer of the navy; earl Moira, master of the ordnance; earl Fitzwilliam, president of the council; lord Sidmouth, privy seal; John, duke of Bedford, lord-lieutenant of Ireland; and Mr. Erskine, created lord Erskine, lord high chancellor.

Among the first proceedings of this administration, which affected the state of war, was a message to parliament acquainting the house, that his Prussian majesty having in a moment of confidential intercourse, taken possession of his Britannic majesty's electoral dominions, and aggravated the injury by determining to exclude by force the vessels and commodities of this kingdom from ports and countries under the lawful dominion, or forcible control of Prussia, it became necessary to consider her as a hostile power. This event was soon after followed by a change in the constitution of Germany, of which the following is a brief outline.

The old constitutional union having been dissolved, according to a plan proposed by the French emperor, a new Treaty of Confederation was agreed on; and he caused himself to be declared Protector of the Alliance; an honour which he certainly deserved, as being the contriver and imposer of the whole system; one consequence of which was, that Francis II. was obliged formally to abdicate the high and important office of emperor of Germany, and thus all the ties that had hitherto attached the states of Germany to the imperial Jurisdiction and supremacy were for ever dissolved.

The state of Europe in consequence of these transactions, which put an end to all hopes of restricting the power of France, led eventually to an attempt to negotiate a peace between France and Great Britain. The correspondence relating to this matter began to take place soon after the establishment of the new administration, and much was expected from the apparent cordiality with which the two governments commenced their proceedings, and from the character which Mr. Fox was supposed to hold at the court of France, as a statesman averse to a continuance of unnecessary hostilities, and desirous of listening to terms of mutual conciliation; but experience proved that the time was not yet come when the ambition of France would declare itself satiated, and listen to the voice of moderation.

The negociation originated in an offer made by the French government of treating for peace, on the basis of actual possession, which was stated to admit of mutual compensation. This basis, however, was soon departed from by the enemy, and it became sufficiently obvious, that peace could only be obtained by such sacrifices as would be utterly incompatible with the honour and security of the British nation. After the conferences had been protracted, therefore, to an unusual length, the English plenipotentiaries returned, without effecting any thing.

The conduct of the French government had, indeed, now become so insufferable by its violence and perfidy, that even the king of Prussia, who had remained longer the ally of France than any other power in Europe, and had consequently submitted to more and greater instances of humiliation, was at length compelled to declare that forbearance could be no longer practised, and as it appeared impossible to submit to more indignities, he stated that he must henceforth confide the safety and honour of his crown only to arms.

The period, however, which he had now chosen to resist the power of France was peculiarly unfortunate. He had left himself no ally: his troops had enjoyed a peace of so long duration that they were utterly unacquainted with those changes that had been introduced in military tactics, and yet with all these disadvantages his majesty determined to risk the whole on the event of a battle. That battle was fought on the 14th of October at Jena, and completely decided in favour of the French, about half-past three in the afternoon. The

Prussian army is supposed to have amounted to ninety thousand men: while the French, commanded by Buonaparte in person, amounted to nearly double the number. The consequence of Prussia, as a continental power, was now annihilated, and infatuation completed what impolicy had begun.

The proceedings of parliament during this year were principally distinguished by the final abolition of the slave trade, a measure which had been originally agitated about twenty years before, and had been successfully debated in almost every session of parliament since. Notwithstanding many disappointments and much obloquy, the friends of the abolition persisted in their endeavours, meeting every fresh discussion in the most open and liberal manner, until the conviction became general, that this trade was disgraceful to the nation and unnecessary to the welfare of our West India islands. The last question of abolition was introduced into parliament on the 10th of June, 1806, by Mr. Fox, when it was carried by a majority of 114 to 15, and a similar motion was carried in the house of lords a few days after by a majority of 41 to 20. The month of September was marked by the demise of the Right Hon. C. J. Fox, secretary of state for foreign affairs. He died at the seat of the duke of Devonshire, at Chiswick, in the fifty-ninth year of his age; and his remains were interred with great pomp in Westminster abbey.

Early in the following year his Britannic majesty had an opportunity of demonstrating his zealous attachment to the Protestant religion. A bill, having for its object the emancipation of papists from their present inability to hold places of trust under government, had been introduced into parliament, and strenuously supported by the ministers. His majesty, feeling it impossible to affix his assent to such a bill without violating his coronation oath, was naturally offended, and required a solemn assurance from the ministers, that, after abandoning the measure, they would never again revive it. This proposal was rejected, and upon their consequent resignation, the duke of Portland was appointed first lord of the treasury, Mr. Canning, lord Hawkesbury, and lord Castlereagh secretaries of state; Mr. Perceval, chancellor of the exchequer; lord Mulgrave, first lord of the admiralty; and lord Eldon, lord high chancellor.

On the continent, appearances were, for a short time, favourable to the allies, and the laurels which Buonaparte

had gathered so profusely in Italy and Germany, seemed likely to wither among the morasses of Poland. Victory, however, returned to the French standards in the battles of Pulstuck and Eylau; Dantzic fell into their possession shortly afterwards; and in the grand contest which took place at Friedland on the 14th of June, the Russians were defeated with such prodigious slaughter, that their emperor thought proper to sign an armistice at Tilsit, which was soon followed by preliminaries of peace. The Prussian monarch, now abandoned by his imperial ally, was obliged to submit to his fate; and by the arrangements of the new treaty he lost nearly half his possessions.

With a view to the advantage of the Russians, who were at the same time engaged in a war with France and with the Turks, an English squadron, under the command of sir J. T. Duckworth, and sir T. Louis, forced the passage of the Dardanelles, and proceeded to Constantinople; but, after ten days' fruitless attempt to accomplish this intended object, the British commanders judged it expedient to retire.

About the same time, intelligence was received of the recapture of Buenos Ayres from the British. The small force which had been left to protect this extensive acquisition, rendered the success of a revolt probable; and general Liniers, a French officer in the Spanish service, having excited a spirit of rebellion among the inhabitants, made an attack upon the town, the streets of which were soon filled by Spanish troops, whilst a war of ambush was carried on upon the tops of the houses. A flag of truce was therefore displayed on the castle, and the British forces, having capitulated, marched out with all the honours of war. An attempt was subsequently made to retake the town: but it was frustrated through the ignorance or pusillanimity of general Whitelock; who, on his return to England, was tried by a court martial, and dismissed his majesty's service. The city and fortress of Monte Video, however, were taken by about four thousand British troops under the command of colonel Browne.

The court of Denmark having committed several acts of hostility against Great Britain, and it being suspected that the navy of that country was to be at the disposal of Buonaparte, an expedition was dispatched, under the command of lord Gambier, and earl Macartney, to offer protection against

the French, or to take possession of the Danish fleet and naval stores. On the 16th of August the debarkation of the troops was effected, and the object of the fleet and army was fully explained to the people in a temperate proclamation. On the 2nd of September a surrender of the naval stores and vessels of his Danish majesty into the care of the British was formally demanded; and on the demands being rejected Copenhagen was bombarded in the most severe manner, for three successive days and nights. The conflagration which ensued seemed to threaten nothing less than the destruction of the city; in consequence of which the Danes requested an armistice; and on the 7th their fleet, consisting of sixteen ships of the line, fifteen frigates, six brigs, and twenty-five gun-boats, together with the naval stores, were surrendered by capitulation. The property of the inhabitants was held sacred, and all prisoners were restored on this occasion.

Scarcely had the treaty of Tilsit been concluded, before the French emperor meditated the complete subversion of the Spanish monarchy. He accordingly contrived, under various plausible pretences, to introduce a powerful French force into Spain; he then prevailed on the king to abdicate his throne; and having succeeded in drawing his successor, Ferdinand, beyond the protection of the army, he sent him a prisoner to France, and proclaimed his own brother, Joseph, king of Spain, and of the Indies.

The general consternation which at first resulted from this daring outrage, on the part of the despot of France, had no sooner subsided, than a general insurrection broke out among the Spaniards, who declared eternal war against their base and audacious oppressors. The French troops were, in consequence, defeated in various parts; and Joseph Buonaparte, with his armed myrmidons, were compelled to quit the capital, in the most precipitate and disgraceful manner. A supreme and central junta was also formed; war was formally declared against France, in the name of Ferdinand the Seventh; and deputies were despatched to implore the assistance of Great Britain, with which peace had been already proclaimed. Accordingly an expedition was fitted out, under the command of sir David Baird, and ample supplies of money, arms, and ammunition were sent to the Spanish patriots.

The successes of the Spaniards, however, proved but short-lived; for Buonaparte, with that promptitude which so peculiarly marked his character, re-appeared on the frontiers of Spain with a numerous force, and, in a series of engagements, vanquished the patriots, regained the towns and fortresses of which they had taken possession, and entered the ill-fated capital in triumph.

The prince regent of Portugal, who under the protection of the English had emigrated, with his court, to the Brazils, at a period when the French ruler had menaced his liberty and life, addressed a manifesto to his subjects, which occasioned an almost universal rising in the north of Portugal, and the consequent expulsion of the French forces, who, from that quarter, had audaciously invaded the country. The Portuguese juntas, formed on this occasion, immediately solicited the aid of the British; and a powerful force, under sir Arthur Wellesley, was landed on the coast of Portugal, and proceeded towards the capital, in order to attack the French army under general Junot. After some skirmishes, in which the enemy were invariably foiled, a severe and obstinate battle was fought near the village of Vimiera, and the French were obliged to retreat, with the loss of thirteen pieces of cannon, and about three thousand men, in killed and wounded. On the following day, however, sir Hugh Dalrymple, who had been called from his situation of lieutenant-governor of Gibraltar, to assume the command of all the British corps sent into Portugal, arrived at Cintra, the place which the conquerors had occupied after the battle; and a few hours after his arrival, Junot sent in a flag of truce, proposing a cessation of hostilities. This was readily granted; and a convention was soon afterwards concluded between the two generals, by which the French army was to evacute Portugal, on condition of being conveyed to France at the expense of the British. One article, however, which stipulated that the Russian fleet, then lying in the Tagus, should either remain there unmolested or return home, was peremptorily rejected by sir C. Cotton, to whom it was subsequently surrendered, on condition of being restored six months after the conclusion of peace between Russia and Great Britain. The convention of Cintra excited the greatest dissatisfaction in England, and petitions poured in from all parts of the kingdom, calling loudly for an inquiry into that unaccounta-

ble transaction. A formal declaration of his majesty's disapproval of both the armistice and the convention was officially communicated to sir H. Dalrymple; and a court of inquiry was instituted, but without producing any thing worthy of notice.

The commencement of the year 1809 was marked by an event equally glorious and disastrous to the British forces in Spain. Sir John Moore, who, with the troops under his command, had penetrated almost to the centre of the kingdom, was compelled, by the overwhelming numbers of the French, to retreat with the utmost precipitation. On this occasion he displayed the most consummate skill, and, in the engagement which took place on his arrival at Corunna, the enemy were completely defeated, and compelled to fly in all directions; but whilst the British troops embarked on board the transports without molestation, they had to regret the loss of their heroic commander, who fell at the commencement of the battle.

The hope of ultimately succeeding against the tyrant of the continent had nearly subsided, when the Austrian cabinet published a declaration of war against France. Buonaparte, however, having contrived to force himself between the principal divisions of the Austrian army, defeated them in several engagements, and soon made himself master of Vienna; and notwithstanding a serious repulse which he received from the archduke Charles, on the bank of the Danube, the battle of Wagram was so decisive, that the emperor of Austria was obliged to request a cessation of hostilities, and subsequently to conclude a peace, upon very disadvantageous terms.

Whilst these occurrences were passsing on the continent, the British cabinet hoped, by making a diversion in favour of their allies, to check the progress of the enemy; and sir Arthur Wellesley, having again defeated the French troops, and chased them from Portugal, marched with a numerous force into Spain, and formed a junction with the Spanish army, commanded by general Cuesta, at Talavera. On the 27th of July an engagement took place, in which the French were compelled to retreat across the Alberche, with the loss of twenty pieces of cannon, a considerable quantity of ammunition, and nearly ten thousand men in killed and wounded. But as the British general received intelligence, soon after the battle, that the enemy designed to attack him, both in front

and in rear, with a very superior force, he immediately re-crossed the Tagus, and retreated to a strong position in Portugal. It must be added, that the military talent exhibited by sir Arthur, in the battle of Talavera, induced his Britannic majesty to create him a peer, by the title of viscount Wellington.

With a view to occasion a further diversion on behalf of the Austrians, and also to attempt the capture or destruction of the French vessels lying in the Scheldt, a British army of fifty thousand men was landed on the island of Walcheren; but a considerable time having elapsed prior to the reduction of Flushing, the enemy collected a numerous force, raised several formidable batteries, and conveyed their ships up the river, beyond fort Lillo. That part of the country also, where the English might have landed, was completely inundated. Walcheren, the only fruit of this expensive and unfortunate expedition, was to have been retained by the conquerors for the purpose of shutting up the mouth of the Scheldt, and of facilitating the introduction of British manufactures into Holland. This design, however, was rendered abortive by the unhealthiness of the climate : and after great numbers of the troops had fallen a sacrifice, the British army evacuated the island on the 9th of December, having previously destroyed the fortifications. arsenal, docks, and bason. Some old ships filled with stores were also sunk at the entrance of the Scheldt, to preclude an escape of the French fleet from the place of its retreat.

The parliamentary proceedings of this year were rendered remarkable by an inquiry into the conduct of the duke of York as commander-in-chief, in consequence of his having been charged with an illegal disposal of commissions in the army. His Royal Highness, though acquitted by a majority of the house of commons, resigned his office, in which he was succeeded by sir David Dundas.

Among the gallant actions which were performed this year by the British navy, we must notice an attack upon the French fleet in Basque roads, by lord Gambier and lord Cochrane on the 11th and 12th of April, when one ship of 120 guns, five of 74, and two frigates were driven on shore in such a situation as ensured their destruction; and one of 80, two of 74, one of 50 guns, and three frigates were burnt. And to this exploit must be added the capture of a Russian

flotilla and convoy in the Baltic, by sir J. Saumarez: the destruction of three sail of the line, two frigates, and twenty French transports, in the bay of Rosas, by lord Collingwood; and the reduction of the islands of Cayenne, Martinique, Ischia, and Florida, and the city of St. Domingo.

Whilst these victories were extending the honour of the British arms abroad, the nation was exhilarated at home by the important and interesting event of their beloved monarch's entrance into the fiftieth year of his reign. It was accordingly celebrated as a jubilee by all ranks throughout the united kingdom. In the metropolis the joyous day was announced by the ringing of bells, the display of flags, and the assembling of the various corps of regular and volunteer troops. The forenoon was devoted to public worship; collections and subscriptions were made for the relief of indigent families and the emancipation of poor debtors; and the evening was marked by a splendid and general illumination.

The commencement of the year 1810, was marked by the entrance of the French into Andalusia, their manœuvres having completely deceived the Spaniards. On the 29th of January they approached within two leagues of Seville, from which the inhabitants fled in all directions; and in consequence of the general alarm excited by this irruption, immense numbers sought an asylum within the walls of Cadiz. After some time, however, the general panic subsided, as little doubt was entertained of the final defence of Cadiz, and a supply of provisions, commensurate with the increased population, arrived at this critical juncture. The Spanish fleet lying in the harbour was placed at the disposal of admiral Purvis; and both the military and political government of the fortress were entrusted to a junta, consisting of persons most likely to adopt the best means for the public security. Early in February the French entered Malaga, which was given up to be pillaged for two days. Almeida surrendered to the army under Massena on the 27th of August; and Seville was reduced to the most wretched condition by the unremitting demands of the invaders, and the brutality of their general, Soult. The flame of patriotism, however, continued to spread among the Spaniards, whose desultory mode of warfare against their cruel enemy was, in many instances, crowned with success; and notwithstanding the pompous gasconades of the French, with respect to Portugal, Lisbon remained se-

cure beneath the shelter of the British arms, and Massena thought proper to retreat before lord Wellington, after the battle of Busaco.

Whilst these occurrences were taking place in Spain and Portugal, Louis Buonaparte, having in vain attempted to ameliorate the condition of the Hollanders, published a formal abdication of the crown; and on the 9th of July this unfortunate country was annexed to France by a decree of Buonaparte, who, after divorcing his empress Josephine, had espoused the archduchess Maria Louisa, on the first of April.

At home a considerable stir was occasioned for a short time by the punishment of sir Francis Burdett, for a breach of privilege. On the 12th of March this member made a motion in the house of commons, respecting the recent committal of John Gale Jones, the conductor of a debating society, for having announced in a hand-bill the following comparative question, "Which is most deserving the censure of the public, Mr. Yorke's enforcement of the standing order of the house, to exclude strangers from the inquiry into the Walcheren expedition; or Mr. Windham's late attack on the liberty of the press?" Sir Francis endeavoured to prove, that though the house had a power of committal over its own members, it had no such power over others; but that this assumption of authority was of very recent date, and that it infringed upon the liberty of the subject, as provided for by *magna charta* and the bill of rights. His motion for the liberation of Jones being negatived, he afterwards addressed a letter on the subject to his constituents, through the medium of Cobbett's Political Register; and on the 27th of March this letter was introduced to the notice of parliament by a Mr. Lethbridge, who moved that the publication was a libellous and scandalous paper, and that sir Francis Burdett, having admitted it as his production, was guilty of a gross breach of the privileges of the house of commons. After an adjournment for one week, both these resolutions were carried; and a motion of sir R. Salisbury, that sir Francis should be committed to the tower, was also carried by a majority of 37 members.

On the 6th of April the baronet, who had been apprised of these proceedings, came to town from Wimbledon; but in an interview with the sergeant at arms, he urged the illegality of the speaker's warrant for his committal, and expressed

his resolution to resist its execution, if necessary, by force. The reports which were immediately circulated inflamed the minds of the people to such a degree, that a great number of the lower order of persons assembled before the baronet's house, in Piccadilly, exclaiming, "Burdett for ever," and imprecating vengeance on his enemies. At night they paraded the streets, constraining the inhabitants to illuminate their windows, and breaking the windows of all who refused to comply with this demand. The appearance of a troop of horse guards, together with Mr. Reid, the magistrate, and a number of constables, on the following day, excited the most alarming ferment in the multitude, which was now considerably augmented. Hisses, shrieks, groans, and every expression of indignation issued from all quarters; the guards were assaulted with showers of stones and brickbats; and even after the riot act had been read, the commotion was so great, that it became necessary to send for an additional body of cavalry, who galloped among the crowd, and drove them up and down Piccadilly, and into the adjoining streets and alleys, where several persons were wounded, but only three seriously.

The following day in consequence of the receipt of a letter from sir F. Burdett, the sheriffs of Middlesex arrived in Piccadilly, attended by the *posse comitatus*, who formed a guard in front of the baronet's house, while the horse guards, who had previously occupied that station, divided into two bodies, and took a position of about 500 yards on each side. The efforts of the sheriff to appease the tumult, however, proved completely fruitless, and the horse guards were again under the necessity of dispersing the mob, sword in hand. At the same time considerable bodies of cavalry and infantry were marched to town, and pieces of artillery were planted in the park and in each of the principal squares, to overawe the rioters.

At length, on the 9th of April, the officers having forced an entrance through the kitchen window, the baronet was taken, and conveyed in a coach to the Tower, under a strong guard. The indignation of the multitude was now particularly directed against the soldiery, who on their return from the Tower, were assaulted so furiously, that they at length charged their assailants, and continued firing their carbines all the way through Fenchurch-street, where a ball, entering a shop, mortally wounded a corn porter of the name of Ebrall.

After his death, coroners' inquests were held on him, and on the body of another person who had been shot in Piccadilly; verdicts were returned of "wilful murder by life-guardsmen unknown." An inquest was also held on a third person, but, as he was proved to have attacked the military, the verdict returned was "justifiable homicide." At the prorogation of parliament, on the 21st of June, sir Francis was liberated from the Tower; and great preparations were made by his partisans to conduct him home in a triumphal procession; but this honour he declined, and retired, with the utmost privacy, to his seat at Wimbledon.

In this year the amiable princess Amelia, his majesty's youngest daughter, after enduring a most tedious and distressing illness, and expecting in vain the renovation of her health, conceived a wish of presenting her royal father with some token of filial affection, previous to that awful change which she considered to be drawing very near. Accordingly, in an interview with his majesty, she placed on his finger a ring, which had been made for the purpose; but the affecting manner in which she performed this action, accompanied by the impressive words "*remember me*," proved too much for the agitated monarch, already weakened by many severe trials; and the indisposition, both bodily and mental, which ensued, involved the nation in sorrow, and rendered it necessary that parliament should turn their attention to the subject of a regency. The princess who had most unintentionally given this shock to the susceptible mind of her august parent, expired on the 2nd of November, and was interred at Windsor.

From motives of delicacy, some time was suffered to elapse before any decisive measures were adopted by parliament; and after repeated adjournments, it was deemed advisable to proceed by bill rather than by address. A regency bill was, therefore, proposed at the commencement of the year 1811, and carried through both houses, by which it was enacted that his royal highness the Prince of Wales should exercise the office and authority of regent of the united kingdom of England and Ireland, in the name and on the behalf of his royal father, during the continuance of his majesty's illness: but as sanguine hopes were still entertained respecting the king's recovery, it was enacted that the power of elevating any person or persons to the peerage should

be suspended for twelve months; and all offices and pensions which might be granted by the prince, should continue only during his regency, unless the same should be afterwards approved and confirmed by his majesty. The care of the king's person was, at the same time, committed to her majesty.

The 6th of Feb. 1811, being the day appointed for swearing in the Prince of Wales as regent, about a quarter before two o'clock all the dukes, and a numerous assemblage of privy counsellors, met at Carlton-house, where the Prince took the appropriate oaths in their presence, and was saluted by them as Regent.

On the 12th of February parliament was opened by commission; and in the speech delivered on that occasion, after some expressions of the most lively concern on the subject of the national calamity which had rendered a regency indispensible, a cheerful picture was drawn of the valour and skill of his majesty's forces, both by sea and land, in the late campaign; of the frustration of the enemy's designs in Portugal, and at Cadiz; and of the effect produced by the example of British heroism upon the troops of his majesty's allies. It was also stated, that between England and America discussions were depending, which the regent earnestly wished to bring to an amicable conclusion. And the fullest confidence was expressed in the zeal and liberality of parliament for the provision of such supplies as might prove commensurate with the wants of government. To this speech an address was moved by the earl of Aberdeen in the house of lords, and by Mr. Milnes in the house of commons; which after some opposition was carried.

In the house of commons, on the 21st of February, the chancellor of the exchequer stated, that having, during the discussions on the regency bill, expressed his intention of moving for a provision with respect to the regent's household, not to exceed 12 or 13,000*l.* he had submitted his plan to the prince: but his royal highness had declared he would not, for his own personal magnificence, add another burden to those already imposed upon the public. Mr. Perceval added, it was sufficiently obvious, from the known character of the regent, that he had submitted to this instance of self-denial, and had refused all personal state, from an economical consideration for the people, a consideration which would

throw around him more real splendour than any royal establishment whatsoever.

But few bills of an interesting nature were passed during the session, except a bill for better preventing vexatious arrests, by raising the sum for which persons may be held to bail in mesne process; an act for permitting the interchange of the British and Irish militias from their respective countries; and a bill for preventing guineas, half-guineas, and seven-shilling pieces, from being taken for more than 21s., 10s. 6d. and 7s. respectively, and for preventing bank notes from being taken for less than the sums expressed in them. On the 24th of July, parliament was prorogued by commission, to the 12th of November, and on that day it was further prorogued to the 7th of January ensuing.

On the continent various successes attended the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese, and those of their cruel invaders; but, generally speaking, whenever the British forces engaged, Buonaparte had the mortification to discover that his legions were not *invincible;* and some victories were obtained which will probably never be obliterated from the recollection of Britons, or of the patriotic bands on whose behalf they were achieved.

The battle of Barossa, which took place on the 5th of March, was fought under such peculiar circumstances, and with such disparity of numbers, that lieutenant-general Graham in his dispatches to the earl of Liverpool, begs leave to make a particular statement, in order to justify himself from the imputation of *rashness* in his attempt. From this statement it appears, that after a nocturnal march of sixteen hours from the camp near Vegar, the allied army arrived in the morning on the low ridge of Barossa, about four miles to the southward of the Santi Petri river. This height extends inland about a mile and a half, containing on the north the extensive healthy plain of Chiclana. A large forest of pines skirts the plain, and circles round the height at some distance, terminating down to the Santi Petri; the intermediate space between the forest and the north side of the height being uneven and broken. A well-conducted attack on the rear of the enemy's lines, by the vanguard of the Spanish army, having opened a communication with the Isle de Leon, general Graham received directions to move down from the position of Barossa to that of the Torre de Bermesa, about

half way to the Santi Petri, in order to secure the communication across that river, over which a bridge had been recently erected. This latter position occupies a narrow woody ridge, the right on the sea-cliff, the left falling down to the Almanza creek, on the edge of the marsh; while a hard sandy beach affords an easy communication between the western points of these two positions. General Graham's division, having halted on the eastern slope of the Barossa height, was marched, about twelve o'clock, through the wood towards the Bermesa, cavalry patroles having previously proceeded towards Chiclana without discovering the enemy. On the march, intelligence was received that the enemy had appeared in force on the plain, and was advancing towards the heights of Barossa. As that position was in reality the key of that of Santi Petri, general Graham immediately countermarched, in order to support the troops left for its defence, and this manœuvre was executed with the greatest alacrity. It was impossible, however, on such difficult ground, to preserve order in the columns, and there was never time to restore it completely. But before the troops could get entirely disentangled from the wood, those on the Barossa height were seen returning from it, while the enemy's left wing was rapidly ascending, his right standing on the plain at the edge of the wood, within cannon-shot. As a retreat under these circumstances might have proved extremely detrimental to the whole allied army, an immediate attack was determined on, notwithstanding the numbers and position of the foe. As soon as the infantry was hastily collected together, a battery of ten guns opened, and kept up a most destructive fire in the centre, while the right wing proceeded to the attack of general Rufin's division on the hill, and drove them from their position; and the left wing decided the defeat of the division under general Laval. A reserve formed beyond the narrow valley, across which the enemy was closely pursued, shared the same fate; and in less than an hour and a half from the commencement of the action, the whole of the enemy's troops were in full retreat. In this brilliant affair the French are supposed to have lost about three thousand, in killed, wounded, and missing, and an eagle and six pieces of cannon fell into the hands of the conquerors. Generals Rufin, Rosseau, and Bellegarde were also taken prisoners; the former of whom was wounded, and the second died soon after the engagement.

It may be proper to add, that when the expedition against the rear of the enemy was planned, an arrangement was made with sir R. G. Keats, for an attack on the French batteries in Cadiz bay, in order to effect a diversion. This plan, however, could not be executed, on account of the unfavourable weather, till the day after the battle of Barossa, when it was carried into effect with all the coolness and intrepidity of British seamen. All the batteries on the east side of the bay, from Rota to St. Mary's, with the exception of fort Catalini, were carried by storm, the guns spiked, and the works completely destroyed.

Another brilliant display of British valour and intrepidity occured in the battle of Albuera, which took place between marshal Soult and marshal sir W. Beresford, on the 16th of June.

On the 12th it was reported that Soult had broken off from Seville, and had advanced towards Estremadura, notwithstanding the rumours which had been previously circulated, that he was busily employed in strengthening Seville and the approaches to that city, and that all his actions indicated an intention to remain on the defensive in Andalusia. In consequence of this intelligence sir W. Beresford raised the siege of Badajos without any loss, and having collected the troops under his command, formed a junction with generals Castanos and Blake, at Albuera, on the 15th. The following day he was attacked by the enemy, who for some time appeared likely to obtain the victory, in consequence of the great superiority of their cavalry, and a numerous and heavy artillery; the determined heroism of the British troops however, turned the fortune of the day, and in the night of the 17th the French thought proper to retreat, leaving about 2000 dead on the field of battle, and from 900 to 1000 taken prisoners. The losses in the allied army were also very great; but sir W. Beresford remarks, in his letter to lord Wellington, "Every individual most nobly did his duty; and it was observed that our dead, particularly the 57th regiment, were laying, as they had fought, in ranks, and every wound was in front."

Of the other occurrences on the peninsula, our limits will only permit us to observe, that in consequence of the skilful and judicious conduct of lord Wellington, and the cordial unanimity subsisting between the British commanders and

their Spanish and Portuguese allies, the French, notwithstanding some trifling successes, found it impossible to execute their recent boastful threat, of speedily crushing every appearance of rebellion ; and the flame of patriotism acquired fresh lustre from the diminished reputation of the enemy.

Among the naval exploits which graced this year, we must notice the defeat of the French and Italian squadrons off the isle of Lissa ; and the capture of the islands of Banda and Ternate, and of Batavia, the capital of the island of Java.

The combined squadrons alluded to consisted of five frigates, one corvette, one brig, two schooners, one gun-boat, and one xebeck, forming a total of 272 guns and 2655 men ; to which were opposed his Britannic majesty's ships Amphion, Cerberus, Active, and Volage, carrying in all but 124 guns and 879 men. In the morning of the 13th of March, an enemy's fleet having been discovered off the north point of the island of Lissa, the action commenced by the British squadron firing on the headmost ships, as they came within range. Having made a fruitless attempt to break the line in two places, some of the enemy's vessels endeavoured to place their assailants between two fires ; but they were so warmly received in this attempt, and rendered so completely unmanageable, that they went on shore on the rocks of Lissa in the greatest confusion. The British line was then wore to renew the action, the Amphion not half a cable length from the shore, the remainder of the enemy's starboard division passing under her stern and engaging her at leeward, whilst the larboard division got to windward, and engaged the Cerberus, Volage, and Active. " In this situation," says captain Hoste, " the action commenced with great fury, his majesty's ships being frequently in positions which unavoidably exposed them to a raking fire of the enemy, whose superiority of numbers enabled him to take advantage of it ; but *nothing* could withstand the brave squadron I had the honour to command. The Flora having struck her colours at twenty minutes past 11 A. M. and the Bellona having followed her example, the enemy to windward endeavoured to make off ; but were followed up as close as the disabled state of his majesty's ships would permit ; and the Active and Cerberus were enabled, at 3 P. M., to compel the sternmost of them to surrender, when the action ceased, leaving us in possession of the Corona of 44 guns, and the Bellona of 32

guns (the French commodore): the Favourite of 44 guns on shore, where she soon blew up with a dreadful explosion; the corvette of the enemy making all possible sail to the north-west, and two frigates crowding sail for the port of Lessina; the brig making off to the south-east; and the small craft flying in every direction."

The capture of the island of Banda, on the 9th of August, was also particularly honorable to the British arms. The attack was made on this settlement during a dark and squally night, by somewhat less than two hundred men, consisting of seamen and marines, and about forty of the Madras European regiment under the command of Captain Coles. A dark cloud with a fall of rain covered their landing within a hundred yards of a battery of ten guns, which was taken in the rear, and an officer and his guard were made prisoners, though the enemy were at their guns with lighted matches, having discovered the approach of his Britannic majesty's vessels on the preceding day. At the approach of day-light the assailants procured a guide to conduct them to the walls of the castle of Belgica; and after leaving a guard in charge of the battery, the party made a rapid movement round the skirts of the town, where the bugle was sounding an alarm among the enemy. In twenty minutes scaling ladders were placed against the walls of the outer pentagon of Belgica, and the gallantry and alacrity with which they were hauled up, after the outwork was carried, and placed for the attack of the inner work, under a sharp fire from the garrison, was truly astonishing. The enemy, after firing three guns, and keeping up an ineffectual discharge of musketry for about ten or fifteen minutes, fled in all directions, leaving their colonel-commandant and ten others dead, and two officers and thirty prisoners in the hands of the victors. The day now beaming on the British, discovered to them the fort of Nassau and the sea defences at their feet, and the enemy at their guns at the different posts. Admiral Drury then despatched a flag of truce to the governor, demanding the immediate surrender of the fort, and promising to protect all private property. At sunrise the Dutch flag was hoisted in Nassau, and the sea batteries opened a fire on one of the British vessels then approaching the harbour; but on a second flag of truce being sent to the governor, with a menace of storming the fort and laying the town in ashes, if the colours were

not instantly struck, an unqualified surrender was agreed on, and the British heroes found themselves in possession of the two forts and several batteries, mounting one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, and defended by nearly seven hundred disciplined troops and the militia.

It is also necessary to add, that the island of Ternate, though so famous for the strength of its fortifications, and memorable for its defence in the last war against the English, was completely subjugated in less than one day (the 29th of August) by a very inconsiderable force. From official documents, it appears that the place was defended by 500 regular troops, with a very large proportion of officers and Europeans, aided by the marine department, the Dutch inhabitants and burghers, and the king of Ternate's forces, of whom 250 were in the field, and an equal number from the sultan of Tidore and the adjacent islands in alliance with the Dutch; but such was the gallantry, coolness, and decision of the British, that nothing could ultimately withstand their arms.

In the commencement of the year a powerful force was equipped from Bengal for the subjection of Java. The troops were commanded by Sir Samuel Achmuty, and accompanied by Lord Minto, the Governor General of India. After a short but active campaign the Dutch forces were defeated, their principal dependence, fort Cornelis, taken by storm, and the whole island, long the chief seat of the Dutch settlements in the east, annexed to the British possessions.

But whilst the British arms were gathering a profusion of laurels in different parts, an unpleasant rencontre took place between one of his majesty's vessels and a ship belonging to the American government, which threatened nothing less in, its consequences than a war between those countries.

The particulars of the engagement are thus related by captain Bingham, of the Little Belt. "At half-past three, P. M. on the 16th of May, a strange sail, which had been previously discovered, appeared inclined to give chace, when I made the private signal, which was not answered. At half-past six, finding he gained considerably on us, and clearly discerning the stars in his broad pennant, I thought proper to bring to and hoist the colours, that no mistake might arise, and that he might see what we were. The ship was therefore brought to, the colours hoisted, the guns double shotted, and every preparation made in case of a surprise. By his manner of steer-

ing down, he evidently wished to lay his ship in a position for raking, which I frustrated by wearing three times. On his coming within hail, about a quarter past eight, I hailed, and asked what ship it was? He repeated my question. I again hailed, and asked what ship it was? He again repeated my words, and fired a broadside, which I immediately returned. The action then became general, and continued so for about three quaters of an hour, when he ceased firing, and appeared to be on fire about the main hatchway. I was then obliged to desist fron firing, as the ship falling off no gun would bear, and I had no aftersail to keep her to; all the rigging and sails were cut to pieces, and not a brace or bowline left. He then asked what ship this was? and, on being told, he asked if I had struck my colours? I answered no; and asked what ship that was? and, as plainly as I could understand, he answered, the United States frigate.

"Next morning he bore up again, and sent a boat on board with an officer and a message from commodore Rogers, to say, that he lamented the unfortunate affair which had happened; and that, had he known our force was so inferior, he should not have fired at us. I asked his motive for having fired at all; and his reply was, that we fired the first gun at him; but this was positively not the case. He offered me every assistance I should stand in need of, and submitted to me that I had better put into one of the ports of the United States, which I immediately declined. By the manner in which he apologised, it appeared evident, that had he fallen in with a British frigate he would certainly have brought her to action; and what further confirms me in that opinion is, that his guns were not only loaded with round and grape shot, but with every scrap of iron that could possibly be collected."

Such is the statement of captain Bingham, of the veracity of which there can be no doubt. Commodore Rogers, however, in *his* statement, asserts that the Little Belt fired first, and that under the circumstances in which he was placed, it was a duty incumbent on him to avenge the insult committed upon the American flag. It may also be added, that in a subsequent investigation of this subject in America, the statement of commodore Rogers was confirmed by all the witnesses whom he thought proper to bring forward.

Another event of historical importance which marked the year 1811, was the extirpation of the Mamelukes in Egypt.

This singular people had long considered Egypt as their patrimony, and their obedience to the Turkish viceroy, except when enforced by arms, had long been completely nominal. They were even carrying on an open war against Mahommed Ali, their viceroy and pacha, when the British army under general Frazer landed in Egypt. Upon the receipt of this intelligence, the pacha concluded a peace with the Mamelukes, as his less dangerous enemies; and stipulated in one of the articles of his treaty with them, that the whole corps should come and reside at Cairo. With this condition the greater part of them complied, and under the command of Sciaim Bey fixed their residence at Gizeh, near the capital, but on the opposite side of the Nile; and the remainder, under the command of Ibrahim Bey, remained in Upper Egypt.

About this time the Porte entertained considerable alarm on account of the rapid progress of a sect called the Wechabi, who had already obtained possession of Mecca and Medina. Jussuf, pacha of Damascus, had not been able to resist the numbers and the enthusiasm of these seceders from the Mahommedan faith: and Suliman, pacha of Acre, had in consequence received orders to send the head of Jussuf to Constantinople, and to assume the command of the pachalik of Damascus. Jussuf, however, fled to Cairo, where he was hospitably received by Mahommed Ali and sheltered from the attempts of his rival; and the Porte finding Suliman no better able than Jussuf to resist the infidels, at length ordered the pacha of Egypt to undertake the recovery of the holy cities, and promised to reward him with the governments of Acre and Damascus. This order and promise of the Porte were no sooner known to the pacha of Acre, than he conceived an ardent desire of revenge, and immediately formed a plan of joining his forces with those of the Mamelukes, and of attacking Mahommed Ali and the small remnant of his army which would be left in Egypt after the departure of the expedition against Mecca, under the command of his son. The jealousy and vigilance of the viceroy, however, proved equal to the treachery of his enemies. A servant of Sciaim Bey having been bribed to betray his master, regularly transmitted to the pacha copies of the correspondence carried on by the beys in Cairo with those in Upper Egypt, and with Suliman of Acre. The Porte also was duly informed of the de-

signs of the conspirators, and when its final orders arrived, the viceroy immediately prepared to put them in execution.

On his return from Suez to Cairo, Mahommed Ali announced the approaching completion of his preparations against Mecca; and that on the 1st of March he should celebrate a grand festival on the occasion of investing his son with the pelisse of command, previous to the departure of the expedition; and all the Mamelukes in Cairo were invited to honour the ceremony with their presence. The procession was to pass through the private streets of Cairo up to the citadel, where the investiture was to take place. The Turkish infantry led the way, and were followed by the Mamelukes on horseback under the command of Sciaim Bey, who was supported by two sons of the viceroy, and the Turkish cavalry followed and closed the procession. The foot soldiers had already entered the interior of the citadel, and the Mamelukes were passing between the inner and outer wall of the fortress, along a narrow way, inclosed on both sides by high walls and ruinous buildings, when the gates at each extremity of the passage were closed. The viceroy had revealed his intention to no one till this moment, when he ordered his infantry to line the walls which surrounded the Mamelukes, and to open a heavy fire upon them, though his sons were still mixed with them, and for some time exposed to the same fate.

The Mamelukes, cooped up in a narrow space, where their equestrian skill and their unrivalled dexterity in the use of the sabre were unavailing, impeded by their own numbers, encumbered by their dresses of ceremony, and surrounded on all sides by a superior force, were compelled to surrender after a feeble resistance. The wicket of the inner gate was then opened, and the Turkish soldiers dragged their victims, one by one, into the court of the citadel, where they were first stripped and then beheaded. Of eight hundred Mamelukes who were enclosed within the walls, none escaped; and in the course of the month, eight hundred more were destroyed in the neighbouring towns and villages. The surviving beys in Upper Egypt placed themselves at the head of eight hundred Mamelukes, with a considerable body of Negroes and Arabs, near the cataracts; but a large body of troops marched against them, and it seems that they ultimately succeeded in destroying the last remains of a people who had subsisted

with varied fortunes, from the days of Saladin to the present period.

In the beginning of the year 1812, his majesty's disorder appearing almost hopeless, and the restricted regency being nearly expired, the nation looked with anxiety towards the prince of Wales; as a total change of ministers and measures was generally expected. In a letter to the duke of York, however, his royal highness stated, that he had no predilections to indulge, no resentments to gratify, no objects to attain, but such as were common to the whole empire. He expressed a wish, indeed, that some of those persons with whom the early habits of his public life were formed should now constitute a part of his government; but on the refusal of lords Grey and Grenville to coalesce with certain members of the existing administration, he thought proper to retain those persons with whom their lordships were unwilling to unite.

It was but a short time, however, that the ministry remained unchanged. On the 11th of May, as Mr. Perceval was entering the lobby of the House of commons, at a quarter past five o'clock, a person of the name of Bellingham, who had placed himself at the side of the door, fired a pistol at him, the ball of which entered his left breast. Mr. P. uttered a faint exclamation, staggered a few paces, and fell on his face. He was immediately taken up and conveyed into the speaker's apartments: but before he reached them the last signs of life had departed. A scene of indescribable confusion and dismay ensued, and at this moment the murderer might probably have escaped undiscovered, but, instead of attempting to leave the place, he deliberately sat down, and without hesitation avowed the horrid deed which he had perpetrated. At the close of his examination, when asked what he had to say, he replied, "I admit the fact, but wish to state something in my justification. I have been denied the redress of my grievances by government: (they all know who and what I am;) through the secretary of state and Mr. Becket, with whom I have had frequent communication. I was accused most wrongfully by a governor-general in Russia, in a letter from Archangel to Riga, and have sought redress in vain. I am a most unfortunate man, and feel *here*, (raising his hand to his breast) sufficient justification for what I have done."

On the 15th of May, Bellingham was brought to the bar of the Old Bailey; when the plea of insanity was suggested by

his counsel, but rejected by himself. In his defence, which occupied the attention of the court for upwards of an hour, he chiefly expatiated on the ill usage which he conceived he had experienced from government, to prove that his assassination of Mr. Perceval was an act of justice. When the jury returned a verdict of guilty, and sentence of death was pronounced, he appeared perfectly calm and collected; and at his execution, which took place on the 18th, he displayed an extraordinary degree of firmness and self-possession, and refused to the very last to express any contrition for his crime.

A message from the Prince Regent to parliament having recommended them to make some provision for Mr. Perceval's numerous and afflicted family, the sum of £50,000 was voted for the use of the children, and £2,000 per annum to the widow, to be paid after her decease to such male descendant of the Right Hon. Spencer Perceval as shall be at that time his heir, for the term of his natural life.

The principal change in the administration were, lord Liverpool as prime minister; lord Sidmouth as secretary of state for the home department; the earl of Harrowby, lord president of the council; and Mr. Vansittart, chancellor of the exchequer.

An alarming disposition to riot prevailed, during a great part of this year, in the hosiery district of Nottinghamshire, the populous tracts of the Cheshire and Lancashire cotton manufactures, and that part of the West Riding of Yorkshire principally occupied by clothiers. The numbers and audacity of the rioters, the systematic plans upon which they acted, and the weapons with which many of them were provided, rendered them truly formidable to the master manufacturers, and excited the most lively apprehensions in the minds of the peaceable inhabitants. The leaders of those disturbances, however, were found to be persons in the lowest ranks of society; and after several of the most guilty had been executed, tranquillity was, in a great measure, restored to the disturbed districts.

On the continent, lord Wellington was in motion at the beginning of the year. On the 8th of January he invested Ciudad Rodrigo, and on the 20th he was enabled to announce the capture of that important frontier town. The attack was made on the 19th, in five distinct columns, and in less than

an hour the assailants were in possession of the place. The garrison, who submitted on this occasion, amounted to one thousand seven hundred men, besides officers ; and the fruits of the victory were a hundred and fifty-three pieces of cannon and large quantities of military stores. To express their grateful sense of this achievement, the Spanish cortes conferred on lord Wellington the rank of a grandee of the first class, with the title of Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo. Having repaired the fortifications of the captured town, and placed it under the command of a Spanish officer, the heroic Wellington turned his attention to Badajoz, and on the 15th of March invested it, on both sides the Guadiana. After various heavy cannonadings, breaches were at length effected in the bastions of Santa Maria and Trinidad, and lord Wellington resolved to attack the place in the night of the 6th of April. Several attacks were made at once upon the different parts of the works, and the escalade of the castle was the first that succeeded; but so obstinate was the resistance of the enemy, and so formidable the obstacles raised behind the trenches, that, after a long and sanguinary contest, the assailants were ordered to retreat. The possession of the castle being secured, however, decided the fate of the town, and the next morning the commandant surrendered with all his staff, and the whole of the garrison; which, at the commencement of the siege, consisting of five thousand men, but of that number twelve hundred had been killed and wounded during the operations of the attack.

To effect, if possible, a diversion in favour of the garrison of Badajoz, Marmont advanced against Ciudad Rodrigo, and kept it blockaded, whilst Soult, duke of Dalmatia, advanced from Seville into Estramadura, as far as Villa Franca : but the latter, on hearing of the reduction of Badajoz, retreated towards the frontiers of Andalusia. On the first intelligence of Soult's retreat, Lord Wellington moved with the allied army under his command towards Castile; and having crossed the Agueda on the 13th of July, he arrived on the 18th in front of Salamanca. After several partial battles, in which sir Thomas Graham rendered his gallantry conspicuous, the grand opposing armies were approaching each other on the 21st, on the banks of the Tormes, and, as they were moving in a confined space, they could not be long without coming to a general engagement. Lord Wellington only waited a favour-

able opportunity for an attack; and this he obtained in the afternoon of the 22nd, by an extension of the enemy's line to the left, in order to embrace a point then occupied by the right wing of the allies. The British commander immediately ordered an attack on the left wing of the French, which happily succeeded, as did an attack on the front, in which they were successively driven from one height to another. The resistance of the enemy was determined and obstinate; but at the approach of night, they broke, and fled in the utmost confusion, and were pursued as long as they could be distinguished. At break of day the pursuit was renewed; and the cavalry of the allies having crossed the Tormes, the rear guard of the enemy was overtaken, when the cavalry fled, leaving the infantry to their fate. Such was the battle of Salamanca, the trophies of which were said to be eleven pieces of cannon, several ammunition wagons, two eagles, and six colours: the prisoners consisted of one general, three colonels, three lieutenant-colonels, an hundred and thirty officers of inferior rank, and between six and seven thousand soldiers. Marshal Marmont was also severely wounded, and four general officers were said to have been killed.

In consequence of this splendid victory, the French thought proper to raise the long continued siege of Cadiz, and the conduct of Lord Wellington obtained such universal approbation in Spain, that he was declared commander-in-chief of the Spanish armies.

During these operations in the Peninsula, the relations between England and America had assumed a more hostile complexion, and, after much discussion in conference, it was resolved to settle the existing differences by the sword.

The conquest of Canada was to be attempted, and troops were immediately marched in that direction: but all the first skirmishes on the part of the Americans proved unsuccessful. In August the British took possession of fort Detroit, and general Hull surrendered himself and his army prisoners of war.

On the 13th of October, major-general Brook, to whom general Hull had surrendered, was killed at Queen's town on the Niagara frontier; but the enemy were defeated, and general Wadsworth, with nine hundred troops, surrendered to major-general Sherffe, on whom the command had devolved.

By sea, however, the Americans were more successful. In

the beginning of September the Guerriere frigate, captain Dacres, was taken by the Constitution, captain Hull: on the 28th of October the Macedonian, captain Garden, was taken by the United States, commodore Decatur; and on the 29th of December, the Java, captain Lambert, was captured by the Constitution, commodore Bainbridge. Each of the British vessels was defended till they were in such a state that the enemy thought proper to set fire to the Guerriere and the Java immediately after the action; and the Macedonian was a mere wreck when she surrendered.

We must now turn our attention to the campaign in the north of Europe, which is, in fact, the prominent feature in the military annals of the year 1812.

Buonaparte, on his return from his tour in the Netherlands, at the latter end of the preceding year, evidently meditated a grand stroke, for the purpose of terminating his differences with the court of Russia, in a manner conformable to that continental system which he had hitherto pursued; and the success of his arms in the peninsula was to be considered as a secondary object till the other was obtained. The first measure on which he resolved was the occupation of Swedish Pomerania; and accordingly, twenty thousand French troops, under the command of general Friant, entered that province, in the month of February; and early in the spring, the French army, united to that of the Confederation of the Rhine, was in march towards the frontiers of Poland. On the 7th of May Buonaparte quitted Paris, accompanied by his wife and the prince of Neufchatel; and on the 16th they arrived at Dresden, where they had an interview with the emperor and empress of Austria. By this time the emperor Alexander had arrived at Wilna, where was Barclay de Tolly, general in chief of the first army of the west. On the 11th of June, Davoust had his head-quarters at Konigsberg, where he was joined by Buonaparte; and after a long and triumphant march, arrived at Smolensko. That city being reduced by the French after an obstinate conflict, in which a considerable portion of the place was destroyed by fire, the Russians retreated towards Moscow, destroying almost every thing in their progress. On the 7th of September they were attacked by the French on the heights of Borodino, and defeated in a most sanguinary engagement. On the 14th Buonaparte entered Moscow, which the Russians had evacuated, after setting it on fire in

several places, which occasioned the destruction of three-fourths of the city. On this occasion about three hundred persons were arrested and shot, by order of the invader, under the title of incendiaries. The Russian forees, however, still maintained their position in the neighbourhood, and not only prevented the enemy from drawing any supplies from the country, but on the 18th of October attacked and defeated a division of the army under Murat.

The French finding it impossible to remain at Moscow during the winter, were obliged to withdraw from that ancient capital, which, on the 22nd, was re-entered by the Russian army. The subsequent retreat of the enemy was truly disastrous. Buonaparte had determined to retire by the way of Kalouga, taking a more southerly course than that which he had pursued in his advance; but the disposition which the Russian general Kutusoff had made, obliged him to change his route.

On the 9th of November he fixed his head-quarters at Smolensko, which he quitted on the 13th, leaving marshal Ney to blow up the ramparts. On the 16th and 17th, Davoust and Ney were both defeated on the banks of the Dnieper, near Krusna. Buonaparte, having succeeded in crossing the Beresina, continued his retreat towards Wilna, and on the 5th of December quitted his suffering troops and set off in disguise to Paris, having previously given the command of the army to Murat. In this retreat the French were not only dreadfully annoyed by the Russians, but such was the severity of the weather, that in a few days, as Buonaparte himself acknowledged, more than thirty thousand horses perished; and to form a body guard for himself of six hundred men, he was obliged to collect those officers who had still a horse remaining; generals performing the functions of captains, and colonels those of subalterns in this cohort.

During the absence of the emperor, an attempt was made to subvert his power at Paris. Early in the morning of October 23, the ex-generals Mallet, Lehorie, and Guidal, having drawn up a fictitious senatus consultum, went to the barracks, occupied by the first division of the national guards and the dragoons of Paris; and having read a proclamation, announcing the pretended death of the emperor, ordered the troops in the name of the regent to follow them. They accordingly suffered themselves to be led to different posts,

where they relieved the guards. The conspirators then arrested the minister and the prefect of the police, and sent them to prison, under an escort of three hundred men. In the mean time another division was marched to the house of general Hulin, the commandant of Paris, who, on hesitating to resign his authority, was shot in the neck. Mallet then proceeded to arrest the chief of the etat major of Paris ; but this person happening to have several officers in his apartment, proved too strong for the conspirator, and arrested him. The troops, being convinced that an artifice had been practised upon them, laid down their arms; and the whole of the conspirators, amounting to about twenty officers and sub-officers, beside the three ex-generals, were seized and committed to prison. These were tried by a military commission, when the ex-generals and eleven others were adjudged to die, and the rest were acquitted.

The disasters which had befallen the French in Russia, led to a defection of the Prussian troops under general D'Yorck, who entered into a convention with count Witgenstein, as soon as the reduction of the French force enabled him to do it with safety; and this convention was ultimately followed by an alliance between the king of Prussia and the emperor of Russia.

On the 14th of January 1813, a letter was sent by the princess of Wales to the prince regent, complaining of the restrictions laid upon her intercourse with her daughter, and the indirect imputation thus, attached to her character. No answer being returned, her royal highness thought proper to publish her letter in the newspapers, that an apparent acquiescence on her part might not expose her to the suspicion of conscious guilt.

The business was then laid before certain members of the privy council, and after some days they gave, as their opinion, 'that under all the existing circumstances, it was highly proper that the intercourse between her royal highness the princess of Wales and the princess Charlotte should continue to be subject to regulation and restraint. On the reception of this report, her royal highness appealed to the house of commons through the medium of the speaker, earnestly requesting that the whole of her conduct since her arrival in England, might undergo a fair and open trial before judges known to the constitution. The house did not think proper to inter-

fere in this delicate business; but in the conversation that took place on it, the innocence of the princess was decidedly avowed. The lord mayor, aldermen, and livery of London, also voted an address of congratulation to her royal highness on the annihilation of a conspiracy against her honour and life; which was presented to her at Kensington palace, and the voice of the nation was unanimously in her favour.

Whilst the Russian forces, already recovered from their fatigues, and abundantly furnished with recruits and reinforcements, were enabled to occupy at leisure what positions they chose, strengthened by the addition of the Prussian forces, and promised by Bernadotte a large army of Swedes, Buonaparte was making preparations for the commencement of a fresh campaign. Accordingly, having appointed the empress Louisa regent during his absence, and having formally declared the king of Rome his successor, he left Paris on the 15th of April, to join his army; and though in several battles the allies were uniformly victorious, they were obliged to retire, by the superior number of his forces. The battle of Lunenberg, on the second of April, may be considered as the commencement of this campaign. General Morand had advanced thither to attack baron Van Tettenborn; but generals Domberg, Tzhernichef, and Benkerdorf being come up, with their respective corps, the French were so completely defeated that it is said not a man escaped, and that three thousand persons were made prisoners, with three colours and twelve pieces of cannon. The same day the Prussian general Von Borstell, who had been sent to surround Magdeburg on the right bank of the Elbe, was attacked by Beauharnois, and obliged to fall back; but on the arrival of general Witgenstein, a general engagement ensued, and the French were defeated, with the loss of two thousand killed and wounded, and nearly a thousand prisoners.

On the 2nd of May, a battle was fought at Lutzen, where the French were commanded by Buonaparte in person, and the allies by general Winzingerode; between twenty and thirty thousand men were sacrificed on this occasion, and the victory was claimed by each party. On the 19th the armies again engaged at Wurtschen; on the 20th and 21st at Bautzen; and on the 22nd at Reitzenbach; and, from the acknowledgment of the parties themselves, the killed and wounded in these actions were not less than forty thousand men. On the

1st of June, a suspension of arms took place, at the suggestion of the emperor of Austria, and on the 4th an armistice was signed, to continue till the 20th of July. This was afterwards extended to the middle of August; but the haughty and insolent behaviour of Buonaparte rendered abortive all attempts of a conciliatory nature, and finally induced his father-in-law to unite his forces to those of the allies.

Hostilities recommenced on the 17th of August; and Buonaparte resolved to make an immediate attack upon the capital of Bohemia; but when he had arrived within twelve leagues of the city, he received intelligence that some of his troops in Silesia were exposed to imminent danger, in consequence of the advance of the Russian and Prussian forces from Breslau. He was therefore obliged to hasten to their relief; and on the 21st he succeeded in driving his enemies from the line of the Bohr. Scarcely, however, had he done this, when he was informed that the allies had marched against Dresden, in order to cut him off from the Elbe. When he received this alarming news he was 120 miles distant from Dresden: this distance, however, he marched, with a strong body of troops in four days, amidst torrents of rain, and in the most tempestuous whether, and arrived a few hours before the allies appeared in sight. The subsequent battle, on the 26th, was obstinately contested; but the allies were eventually obliged to retreat, and general Moreau, who had come from America to assist in the deliverance of Europe, received a wound which occasioned his death.

During the month of September Buonaparte made several attacks on the allied armies, but victory no longer crowned his exertions. General Vandamme was defeated and taken prisoner, shortly after the battle of Dresden; Ney and Oudinot were both defeated by the crown prince of Sweden, and the French Emperor was harrassed beyond example; for when he was engaged with the grand army in Bohemia, the Silesian army advanced upon Dresden; and when he returned to repulse the Silesian army, the grand army returned.

Perceiving, at length, that the forces of the allies were rapidly accumulating, and threatening his rear, whilst his own supplies were intercepted, and his communications gradually cut off, Buonaparte retired from Dresden on the 7th of October, in the direction of Leipsic, leaving a garrison in the city, and taking the court of Saxony with him. The follow-

ing day the king of Bavaria deserted him, and joined the allies, who were now uniting their three armies against the common foe.

On the 16th marshal Ney was defeated by the gallant Blucher, with whom he came in contact on his march. The same day Buonaparte made a furious attack upon the centre of the grand army near Leipsic, but gained no advantage. The three armies of the allies were now in communication with each other; and on the 18th a general engagement took place, in which the French were defeated with prodigious loss, and their leader narrowly escaped being made prisoner, as he quitted Leipsic only two hours before the conquerors marched into it. The allied sovereigns entered the town in triumph; the court of Saxony were taken prisoners: and of the French force of four hundred thousand men, with which the campaign was commenced, not more than ninety thousand escaped beyond the Rhine. The minor states of Germany now thought proper to join the grand alliance; the confederation of the Rhine was completely broken up; the continental system was dissolved; and the fortresses garrisoned by French troops were successively compelled to surrender.

During the absence of the French troops, a revolution was effected in Holland, equally ominous to the domination of Buonaparte, and auspicious to the cause of political freedom. Nothing could be more repugnant to the manners and sentiments of the natives of that country, or more prejudicial to their commercial interests, than their annexation to the French empire; and though they were awed into submission, the majority of the nation contemplated their subjugation with mingled sentiments of indignation and abhorrence. In the month of February a conspiracy was discovered at Amsterdam, for the purpose of subverting the existing government; but the apprehension and punishment of the conspirators suppressed the project in its infancy. At length, on the approach of the allied troops toward the Dutch frontier, the people of Amsterdam, as if influenced by one burst of public feeling, rose in a body; and with the old rallying cry of *Orange boven*, universally displayed the Orange colours, and proclaimed the sovereignty of that illustrious house. The populace expressed their indignation against the French, by burning the watch houses of their custom-house officers, and three of

their vessels. One of the officers was also killed in the affray: but this was the only life lost on the occasion. The example of Amsterdam was soon followed by the other principal towns in Holland; and on the 21st of November, a deputation arrived in London to announce the events which had taken place, and to intreat the prince of Orange to hasten to the assistance of his countrymen. A cabinet council was accordingly held, and it was determined that the Dutch patriots should be immediately assisted with all the succours that could be conveniently furnished. On the 30th of the same month the prince of Orange landed at Scheveling, and thence proceeded to the Hague, where he was solicited to assume the reins of government, not under the ancient title of stadtholder, but as sovereign prince of the Netherlands.

The revulsion of the war in Germany was sensibly felt by the French armies in the Peninsula; as about 1200 officers, 600 serjeants and corporals, and 16,000 privates had been drafted into France, during the months of February and March. Some conscripts, indeed, had been sent out to supply their places; but the change had materially diminished their strength; and but little occurred, at this period, besides movements of troops.

On the 11th of April, a division of the Spanish army, commanded by Don Fernando Millars, was attacked by Suchet; who compelled them to retreat, and made himself master of the castle of Villena, garrisoned by about two thousand men. The next day the victors made an attack upon the allied troops under general Murray, who retired, defending every step of the ground, till night separated the combatants. On the 13th, the French were defeated in an engagement near Vrai, and were compelled to retreat; first to Villena, and afterwards to Fuente la Higuera. After remaining some time inactive at Alicant, sir John Murray embarked his forces, with a Spanish division, and a complete train of besieging artillery; and on the 4th of June, he landed in the neighbourhood of Tarragona, with thirteen thousand foot, and some hundreds of cavalry. On the 7th, fort San Felipe, a station of considerable importance, surrendered to a detachment under lieutenant colonel Prerost; but on the 12th sir John, having heard that Suchet was approaching, abandoned the siege of Tarragona in such haste, that he did not even stay to take his cannon with him.

On the 2nd of June, Lord Wellington being at Tors, on the river Douro, colonel Grant had a brilliant cavalry affair with the rear of the enemy; and the next day his lordship moved his right wing, under general Hill, across the Douro: and united the Gallician army, under general Giroa, to his left wing under general Graham. The French united armies of Portugal and the north had now been joined by their army to the centre, under marshal Jourdan; but they continued to retreat towards the Ebro, which general Graham passed so as to place himself on their flank. On the 18th one French division attacked general Graham at Osma, and another engaged baron D'Alten's brigade at St. Millan; but both were completely repulsed.

On the 19th the French rear-guard was driven back toward Vittoria; and on the 21st a general engagement took place, in which the French forces, commanded by Joseph Buonaparte, having marshal Jourdan as his major-general, were so completely defeated, that they were under the necessity of abandoning all their artillery, ammunition, baggage, and cattle. One hundred and fifty-one pieces of cannon, and four hundred and fifteen ammunition wagons were taken on the field; and among the trophies was the baton of marshal Jourdan. The loss of the allies was about seven hundred killed and four thousand wounded, but that of the French was considerably greater.

On the 23rd generals Graham and Louga were detached in pursuit of the enemy; and on the 25th obtained possession of Tolosa, after an obstinate resistance. On the 26th sir Rowland Hill invested Pampeluna; and on the 12th of July St. Sebastian was besieged by general Graham. A fortified outport of the latter place was carried by storm on the 17th; and on the 25th an assault was made on the body of the place; but the breaches were so completely commanded by the fire of the garrison, that the British troops were obliged to retreat, with the loss of one thousand two hundred and seventy men.

On the first of July marshal Soult was sent from Germany, to assume the command of the French army that had been driven out of Spain; and on the 24th he was leading his forces through the passes of the western Pyrennees. The following day the two armies were engaged, and much severe fighting followed, till the second of August, when this part of Spain was again delivered from the presence of the enemy.

The fall of St. Sebastian was the most important event of the Spanish campaign. The commander-in-chief having directed Sir Thomas Graham to attack and form a lodgment on the breach, which now extended to a large surface of the left of the fortification, the assault was commenced, in the forenoon of the 31st of August, by a combined column of British and Portuguese. The external appearance of the breach, however, proved deceptive; for when the column, after being exposed to a heavy fire of shot and shells, arrived at the foot of the wall, they found a perpendicular scarp of twenty feet to the level of the street, leaving only one accessible point, formed by the breaching of the end and front of the curtain, and which admitted an entrance only by single files. In this situation the assailants made several desperate exertions to gain an entrance, but not a man survived the attempt to mount the narrow ridge of the curtain. In this posture of affairs Sir Thomas adopted the perilous expedient of turning his guns against the curtain, though the shot passed only a few feet over the heads of his men, at the foot of the breach. In the meantime a Portuguese brigade was ordered to ford the river near its mouth, and attack the small breach to the right of the great one. The success of this manœuvre, united to the effect of the batteries upon the curtain, at length gave an opportunity for the troops to establish themselves on the narrow pass, after a most desperate assault of more than two hours; and in an hour more the defenders were driven from all their complicated works, and retired with great loss to the castle, leaving the town in full possession of the allies. This success was rendered complete, on the 18th of September, by the surrender of the castle; when the garrison, amounting to about eighteen hundred men, remained prisoners of war, and all the ordnance, stores, &c. were the prize of victory.

The great event of Lord Wellington's carrying the war into France took place on the 7th of October; and the fall of the strong fortress of Pampeluna, the capital of Navarre, completed the liberation of that part of Spain from the French arms.

On the 25th of January, 1814, Buonaparte left Paris once more to take the command of his armies against the allies, who had now penetrated into France in various directions. He had been preceded on the 10th by Berthier; and on the 24th he, a second time, confided the regency during his absence to his wife, on which occasion she took the oath

before him, in a council of the French princes, grand dignitaries, cabinet ministers, and ministers of state.

To relate the particulars of all the engagements which took place subsequently to this period, would be incompatible with the design of this work. Suffice it, therefore to say, that the conflicts on both sides were obstinately contested, though attended with various success. But whilst Buonaparte was employed against the allies, the Bourbon standard was hoisted in France, and several of the French towns and villages began to resound with acclamations of *Vive le Roi Louis XVIII.! Vivent les Bourbons!* On the 12th of March, sir William Beresford, with the division under his command, entered Bourdeaux, the second city in France for size, wealth and population, and received a most cordial welcome. The mayor even went out to meet him, attended by the constituted authorities, the principal inhabitants, and an immense multitude, in carriages, on horseback, and on foot. In his capacity of mayor, he was decorated with the insignia of Buonaparte's government; but on his approaching marshal Beresford, he tore them in pieces, and trampled them under foot. This conduct was applauded by universal acclamations; and the marshal was solemnly conducted into the city, in which were found eighty four pieces of cannon and a hundred boxes of secreted arms.

. On the 23rd, after much skirmishing with the allies, marshals Mortier and Marmont retired into the French capital, which had for some time expected the approach of the invading armies. The garrison consisted of a part of general Gerard's corps, under general Compans, and a force of about eight thousand regulars, and thirty thousand national guards under general Hulin, the commandant of the city. With this force the French, under Joseph Buonaparte, took up a position on the heights of Belleville. The attacks of the allies, however, were crowned with complete success; the heights of Belleville were carried in the most gallant manner by the Prussian guards: the village of Pantin was carried at the point of the bayonet, and the Prussian general Blucher commenced his attack upon Montmartre, when a flag of truce was sent from marshal Marmont, expressing a wish to receive any communications that might have been intended for him under a flag of truce which had been previously refused admittance. He also proposed an armistice for four

hours, on condition of his quitting every position without the barriers of Paris. These terms were accepted, and the city shortly afterwards surrendered to the allied sovereigns.

A declaration on the part of the allied sovereigns having been published, stating their determination to treat no more with Buonaparte or any of his family, and promising, at the same time, to recognise the constitution which the French nation should choose for itself: the senate assembled, and adopted a provisional government, at the head of which was M. Talleyrand, prince of Benevento. At a subsequent sitting, they declared that Napoleon and his family had forfeited all right to the throne, and that the army and the nation were consequently absolved from their oaths of allegiance. With respect to the choice of their future sovereign considerable difference of opinion existed; but it was finally determined to recal the head of the house of Bourbon to the hereditary throne of St. Louis.

As soon as the emperor Alexander was informed of this decision, he proposed, in the name of the allied sovereigns, that Napoleon Buonaparte should choose a place of retreat for himself and his family; and the duke of Vicenza was directed to carry this proposition to him. On the 1st of April Napoleon signed an abdication in favour of his son, and sent it to the provisional government. This proposition, however, was peremptorily rejected; and on the 6th of April he signed a paper, containing a formal renunciation, for himself and his heirs, of the throne of France and Italy. A handsome revenue was accordingly decreed to him, and the isle of Elba fixed as the place of his retreat. An extensive principality was settled on his wife, in which she was to be succeeded by her son, the late king of Rome, who was also to be allowed the title of prince of Parma.

This glorious termination of so long and doubtful a contest, produced the most lively sensations in England, and the inhabitants of London evinced their feelings on the occasion by illuminations for three successive nights, which exceeded in brilliancy and magnificence those on any former occasion.

The 20th of April was a day of peculiar interest to the metropolis. London had seen a French monarch within its walls before; but it was reserved for this auspicious day to exhibit one under circumstances of greater glory to her than if he had come a captive;—a monarch of France returning

in triumph to his own land, after being sheltered by British fortitude, and restored by British sacrifices to the throne of his forefathers.

On the 23rd his most Christian majesty quitted London; and after a journey and a voyage which resembled a public triumph, he made his entrance into Paris on the 3rd of May. The day was perfectly beautiful, and the weather calm and serene. Paris appeared like one vast promenade, abandoned, without disorder, to all the demonstrations of public satisfaction and popular joy. At night the city was completely illuminated, and a most brilliant display of fireworks was exhibited at the bridge of Louis XVI.

On the 6th of June the emperor of Russia and the king of Prussia, with generals Blucher, D'Yorck, and Bulow, count Platoff, and several other distinguished characters, landed at Dover; and the next morning set out on their journey to London, where their reception was not inferior to that which Louis XVIII. had so recently experienced.

The close of the protracted and sanguinary warfare in which the United Kingdom had been engaged against France and her allies, demanded the expression of national gratitude to the Supreme Disposer of all events. Accordingly, the 7th of July was appointed, by proclamation, to be observed as a day of general thanksgiving; and the Prince Regent went in person to the cathedral church of St. Paul, accompanied by their royal highnesses the dukes of York, Kent, Sussex, and Cambridge, and his highness the duke of Gloucester; and attended by both houses of parliament, the great officers of state, the judges, and other public officers. Monday, the 1st of August, being the centenary of the accession of the house of Brunswick to the throne of England, and the anniversary of the memorable victory of the Nile, was selected as the day for a national jubilee in celebration of the peace.

The end of the year 1814 was marked by the termination of the war in which Great Britain had been engaged with the United States of America: the preliminaries of peace having been signed by the commissioners at Ghent, on the 24th of December, and ratified a few days afterward by his royal highness the Prince Regent.

It was now supposed that Europe would enjoy many years of uninterrupted peace, and that the horrors of war would be succeeded by the augmentation of commerce, the improvement

of arts and manufactures, and the wide diffusion of happiness and contentment. Such conjectures, however, were unfortunately ill-founded. The restless spirit of Buonaparte meditated in his seclusion at Elba, the recovery of a sceptre which had so recently been wrested from his hand;—his friends and adherents in France, who were too numerous even in the court, engaged to prepare the way for his return; and the demon of discord already triumphed in the anticipation of new revolutions and a fresh effusion of human blood.

A. D. 1815. During the temporary absence from Elba, of colonel Campbell, the British commissioner, who had gone to Florence, Buonaparte sailed from Porto Ferrajo, on the 26th of February, on board a brig, which was followed by four smaller vessels, carrying about eleven hundred men, consisting of a small body of Frenchmen, united with a motley assemblage of Poles, Corsicans, Neapolitans, and Elbese. On the first of March the men were landed near Cannes, in the Gulf of Juan, and the same evening the mayor received orders to provide three thousand rations. Antibes was also summoned in the name of Buonaparte; but those who presented themselves to the commandant on this occasion were disarmed and arrested. On the 2nd Buonaparte put his little army in march, passing the town of Grasse without attempting to enter it, and in the course of the three following days, he proceeded across the mountains of Grenoble, a garrison town and military *depôt* which was under the command of general Marchand. Aware of the partiality of the military towards him, Buonaparte on approaching the town threw open his bosom, and exclaimed, "Soldiers, you have been told I am afraid of death—here is my bosom, fire into it if you think proper." This appeal was immediately answered by shouts of *Vive l' Empereur!* and the troops who ought to have arrested or exterminated the invader, perfidiously arranged themselves under his banners.

Buonaparte having obtained considerable supplies at Grenoble, proceeded under an escort of six hundred cavalry to Lyons, a city containing a population of about 110,000 souls. Here the inhabitants appeared disposed to support the cause of the legitimate sovereign, and they received Monsieur, the king's brother, the duke of Orleans, marshal Macdonald, and general St. Cyr, on their arrival from Paris, very favourably. The officers of the garrison, however, avowed their determi-

nation of joining Buonaparte, and the troops uttered loud and repeated shouts of *Vive Napoleon!* Monsieur, therefore, quitted Lyons on the 8th, followed by marshal Macdonald and the prefect of the department; whilst the duke of Orleans hastened to inform the king of the general defection of the military.

Marshal Ney, whose perfidy will be remembered and abhorred as long as his name survives in the page of history, gave the strongest assurances to his sovereign, not only that the rebel army should be attacked, but that their leader should be brought in *an iron cage* to Paris. No sooner however, had he joined his troops, than he addressed a proclamation to them, describing the Bourbons as unworthy of the throne, and urging them to join the invader. He then communicated to the court a declaration, signed by the whole army under his command, in which they stated that they would not fight for Louis the XVIII. but that they would shed all their blood for *Napoleon the Great!*

On the 19th Buonaparte reached and occupied Fontainbleau, without the least opposition, having with him about fifteen thousand veteran troops; whilst other divisions were following him, and advancing to support his right and left flanks on parallel lines of march. The number of national guards, volunteers, and other troops, collected at Melun, to stop his farther progress, was about 100,000 men; and on those the hopes of the Bourbon family rested, as they seemed truly devoted to the cause of the king, and anxious to meet and repel his enemy.

At an early hour in the morning of the 20th, preparations were made for an engagement, which was expected to decide the fate of France. The royal army was drawn up in three lines, the intervals and the flanks being armed with batteries, while the centre occupied the road leading to Paris. The ground from Fontainbleau to Melun is a continual declivity; so that, on emerging from the forest, the spectator has a clear view of the country before him; whilst those below can easily discern whatever appears on the eminence. An awful silence, broken only occasionally by peals of martial music, or by the voices of the commanders, pervaded the king's army. All was anxious expectation; the chiefs feeling that one moment might subvert the throne, and the troops perhaps secretly awed at the idea of meeting in arms the man to

whom they had been in the habit of yielding the most servile obedience. On the side of Fontainbleau no sound, as of an army advancing to battle, was heard. At length a light trampling of horses became audible, and an open carriage, escorted by a few hussars and dragoons, appeared on the skirts of the forest, and drove down the hills with the rapidity of lightning, till it reached the advanced posts. Cries of *Vive l' Empereur !* immediately burst from the astonished soldiery, and exclamations of *Napoleon ! Napoleon the great !* spread from rank to rank; for Buonaparte uncovered, with Bertrand on his right hand, and Drouet on his left, appeared in the carriage, and continued his course, waving his hand and opening his arms to the troops, whom he hailed, as " his friends, his companions in arms, whose honour, whose glory, and whose country he came to restore." All discipline was now disregarded, the commanders took to flight; and the acclamations of the traitorous soldiers rent the air. At this juncture Buonaparte's guard descended the hill,—the imperial march was played,—the eagles were once more exhibited,—and those who were to have met in deadly hostility embraced as brothers, and joined in universal shouts. Thus was Paris thrown open once more to Napoleon, who arrived at the Thuilleries about eight o'clock in the evening; the unfortunate king having previously set out for Lisle, whence he was afterwards obliged to remove to Ghent.

Buonaparte now expected, by a recurrence to his former arts, to establish himself on the throne of France; but his hopes and views on this subject proved fallacious. No sooner were the particulars of his return known to the allied sovereigns, than they issued a declaration, in which they proclaimed him a traitor and an outlaw ; and this was soon followed by a new treaty, engaging to act in concert against him with all their powers. Buonaparte perceived the gathering storm which menaced him; and every possible exertion was made on his part, to put his armies into a formidable state, and to rouse the inhabitants of France to support his government. He was resolved to attack his enemies, without waiting for an invasion of his territories ; and by dashing into Belgium, he expected to gain a victory which would effectually recover his military reputation, and either distract or paralyse his opponents.

In pursuance of this resolution, after giving to the French a new constitution, and nominating generals Sebastiani, Grenier, Beaumont, and Campano, to the command of Paris, he set out for Soissons on the 11th of June, and on the 13th he reached Avesnes, where he seems to have contemplated an immediate attack on the allies; as he issued an order of the day reminding his troops that the 14th was the anniversary of Marengo and Friedland; and that "to every Frenchman who had a heart, the moment was arrived to conquer or perish."

With this appeal to their passions, he put his army in motion. The Prussian posts were established on the Sambre. These he attacked early in the morning of the 15th, and in the course of the day, he drove them from the river, and made himself master of the ground from Thuin to Fleurus, a distance of about 16 miles on the Namur road; whilst on the Brussels road he forced back a Belgian brigade to Quatre Bras, about 12 miles from the river. The Belgians being afterwards reinforced, regained part of the ground they had lost; but at the close of the day the advantage evidently rested with Buonaparte, who established his head-quarters at Charleroi.

Intelligence of these events was not brought to the duke of Wellington at Brussels, till the evening; when he instantly put his troops in motion. Sir T. Picton's division with the duke of Brunswick's corps and the Nassau contingent, arrived at Quatre Bras, about half-past two in the afternoon of the 16th, when they were fiercely attacked by the corps of D'Erlon and Reille, and a cavalry corps under Kellerman, and the gallant duke of Brunswick was slain. The Prussians, at the same time, were attacked in their position near Ligny; and after a severe contest which lasted till night, both the Prussians and British thought proper to fall back upon their reinforcements; the former about 14 miles to Wavre, the latter about the same distance to Waterloo; thus keeping up their communication, and being ready either to support each other, or to unite in pursuit of the enemy, as circumstances might require.

The 17th passed without any occurrence of importance; but the following day was expected to prove decisive, and that expectation was realized. The whole weight of the French force, with the exception of Vandamme's corps, was thrown upon the duke of Wellington's army, whose line was within

about 15 miles of Brussels, crossing the high roads to that city from Charleroi and Nevilles, a little before their junction.

The battle began about ten o'clock in the morning, with a furious attack on a post occupied by the British in front of their right. This was supported by a tremendous cannonade upon their whole line, and with repeated attacks of infantry and cavalry until seven in the evening, when a desperate attempt was made to force their left; but in this the French, after a severe contest, were defeated, and compelled to retreat in great disorder. At this critical juncture the heroic Wellington, now joined by the Prussians, under generals Bulow and Blucher, advanced his whole line of infantry, supported by cavalry and artillery, against the enemy, who was unable to resist the attack. The first line was driven back on the second, and the second line was almost immediately broken. The French were now thrown into such complete confusion, that their artillery, baggage, and every thing was abandoned; and the perseverance of the British general and soldiers was crowned with success; so much the more precious, as it had long remained in a state of the most awful suspense.

On this occasion Buonaparte brought 130,000 men into the field, and these fought with greater desperation than in any former engagement; but after their rout, they became more completely broken than ever, threw away their arms by whole regiments, and, in a word, were wholly disengaged and dispersed.

General Bulow, having judiciously placed himself on the enemy's flank, pursued them with 16 regiments of Prussian cavalry the whole of the night, so that the roads were literally covered with the dead and dying, with arms, baggage, &c. Buonaparte's travelling carriage, plate, and papers fell into the hands of the conquerors; and three hundred cannon, and about 14,000 prisoners were the fruits of this splendid victory. The loss of the French in killed and wounded was estimated at 50,000 men, and that of the allies exceeded 30,000.

After witnessing the irretrievable discomfiture of his troops, Buonaparte retreated with precipitation to Paris, where he arrived at eleven o'clock on the night of the 20th; and the following day he stated explicitly to his ministers, that his army was

no more. The assembly of representatives now declared their sitting permanent; and Napoleon was persuaded, in the course of the day, to abdicate the throne, in favour of his son. This abdication was accepted, and a complimentary message returned by the chamber; but the question with regard to the title of the young Napoleon was prudently evaded.

The remains of the French army, in the mean time, had retired upon Laon. All barriers between Waterloo and Paris seemed to disappear; and the allied troops penetrated, almost without opposition, into the very heart of France. The town of Cambray was taken by escalade by Sir C. Colville; St. Quentin was abandoned to marshal Blucher; and various other operations were executed with the greatest success. All these, however, were but preliminary to the occupation of the capital, by the immortal Wellington and Blucher, who, in consequence of a military convention, occupied the barriers of Paris on the 6th of July, and on the 8th they escorted the king to the palace of his ancestors.

The ex-emperor, on quitting Paris after his abdication, retired to Rochefort, with an intention of sailing for the United States of America. But after long watching in vain for an opportunity of eluding the naval force stationed off that coast, he at length resolved to throw himself on the British for protection. Accordingly, he went on board the Bellerophon with his suite, and addressed a letter to his royal highness the Prince Regent; from which it appears that he expected to find a comfortable asylum in England. In this, however, he was disappointed: the allied sovereigns having unanimously fixed for his future residence, the island of St. Helena; to which place he was subsequently removed, with the title of *General* Buonaparte.

The conclusion of peace between France and the allied powers was some time protracted; but at length the several treaties and conventions for that purpose, were signed at Paris on the 20th of November.

A. D. 1816. The British parliament was opened, by commission, on the 1st of February; and at an early period of the session, in consequence of the presentation of numerous petitions from all parts of the country, the chancellor of the exchequer was compelled to abandon his intended renewal of the property tax.

On the 14th of March the Prince Regent sent a message to both houses of parliament, announcing his design of uniting the Princess Charlotte in marriage to his Serene Highness the Prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg: and expressing a persuasion that his faithful commons would enable him to make a suitable provision for the illustrious pair. The annual sum of £60,000 was accordingly voted, for the joint lives of the prince and princess, with the stipulation, that if the heiress to the crown should die first, £50,000 per annum should be continued to her husband. A bill was also passed for his naturalization, and an additional sum of £60,000 was granted by way of outfit. On the 2nd of May the marriage ceremony was performed in the state chamber at Carlton house; and the most sincere congratulations were poured in from all parts of the British nation. Another royal marriage took place in the month of July, between the Princess Mary and her illustrious cousin the Duke of Gloucester; who gained great popularity, on that occasion, by fixing their establishment upon such a scale as to preclude the necessity of making any application to parliament for pecuniary assistance.

The piratical depredations of the Algerines, and their inhuman massacre of some Christians engaged in the coral fishery at Bona, led to a naval expedition, in the success of which every civilized state was materially interested. Accordingly lord Exmouth set sail with a formidable armament, to revenge these outrages; and on his arrival at Gibraltar, he sent out the Prometheus, Capt. Dashwood. to Algiers, for the purpose of bringing off the British consul and his family. The former, however, had been thrown into confinement by the Dey, who positively refused to liberate him, and the latter would also have been detained, had they not fortunately escaped in disguise. On the 27th of August the armament came in sight of Algiers; and, as no answer was returned to the demands sent in by lord Exmouth with a flag of truce, orders were issued for the ships to occupy their respective stations, and a tremendous fire was opened upon the enemy, which coutinued without interruption, from three in the afternoon till past nine. This was answered from the several batteries on the mole, and in the elevated parts of the city; but on the following morning the spirits of the Dey

and his council appear to have been broken by the scene of desolation which surrounded them. Four large frigates of 44 guns, five corvettes of from 24 to 30 guns, the principal part of their gun and mortar boats, and a great number of small vessels of various descriptions, had been completely destroyed, together with the arsenal, magazines, and a considerable quantity of marine stores; and had the bombardment been renewed, the city must soon have been reduced to ashes. On the receipt of a second letter, therefore, from lord Exmouth, the Dey thought proper to submit to the terms, which, on the preceding day, he had contemptuously refused to answer. These were the immédiate liberation of all Christian slaves without ransom; the restitution of all the sums which had been received for Neopolitan or Sardinian captives since the commencement of the year; a solemn declaration, that in future, all prisoners taken in war should be treated according to the usage of European nations; and that peace should be concluded with the king of the Netherlands on the same terms as with Great Britain. These terms being complied with, and the Dey having publicly asked pardon of the English consul for his imprisonment of that gentleman, lord Exmouth sailed from Algiers on the 3rd of September, with the heartfelt satisfaction of not having left an individual Christian, at that place, in captivity.

But whilst the British arms were thus crowned with laurels, on the behalf of humanity abroad, the aspect of affairs at home was gloomy and perplexing. The sudden revulsion from a state of vigorous war to that of profound peace, threw some thousands of mechanics and labourers out of employment, and reduced them to absolute want. An unusual inclemency of weather also threatened a general failure in the harvest, and a consequent rise in the price of corn occasioned much additional misery to the manufacturing poor, whose reduced wages could no longer furnish them even with the first necessary of life. Public meetings were accordingly held in different parts of the country, for discussing the causes of these evils, and proposing some remedies; and a vast number of petitions were drawn up, praying for relief from the oppressive burden of taxation, and for a radical reform in the commons house of parliament. Two assemblies of this description were held towards the close of the year, in Spa-fields, near Islington: and at the last of these, a riot was excited

by a young fellow named Watson, who, after delivering an inflammatory harangue from a wagon, and displaying some revolutionary flags and placards, led the mob into the city, and attempted to plunder the shop of a Mr. Beckwith, a gunsmith, on Snowhill. A gentleman named Platt, happening to be in the shop, remonstrated on this conduct; when the ruffian fired a pistol at him, and wounded him severely. For this offence he was taken into custody, but contrived to escape in the confusion which ensued. The rioters then proceeded through the city, and committed various outrages, but by the vigorous exertions of the magistrates and the aid of a military force, they were finally dispersed without effecting their avowed purpose.

A. D. 1817.

The Prince Regent went in person to open parliament on the 28th of January; on which occasion the discontented spirit of the lower classes exhibited itself in a scene of tumultuous riot; and on the return of the procession from the House of Lords, one of the glasses of the state carriage was broken by some missile, which appeared to have been aimed at the person of his royal highness. Early in the following month a message was sent to both houses, relative to the state of the country, and in consequence of the reports of the secret committees which were appointed to examine into the business, the habeas corpus act was suspended for a certain period; an act for the security of the king's person, was extended to the Prince Regent; and various former acts relative to tumultuous meetings, and debating societies were incorporated, with a view to existing exigencies. On the 12th of June, parliament was prorogued by a speech from the Prince Regent.

The trial of four persons concerned in the Spa-fields riot, viz. Watson, senior, Preston, Hooper, and Thistlewood, terminated in their acquittal, and demonstrated that spies of the most dangerous description had been employed by government. At Derby, however, where seductive arts had also been employed by such informers, three persons, Brandreth, Ludlam, and Turner, were found guilty of high treason, and paid the forfeit of their lives to public justice. Nine of their associates were sentenced to a milder punishment, and twelve others received a pardon.

The sanguine expectations which had been excited by the union of the prince of Saxe Cobourg with the presumptive

heiress to the British throne, were suddenly blighted on the 6th of November, by the death of that beloved and amiable princess after her delivery of a still-born child. This event was universally deplored throughout the nation, and a *general mourning*, in the true sense of that expression, took place.

In the political relations of the European powers no change of importance took place during the year 1817. The emperor Alexander was fully occupied in strengthening his immense territories, and in making arrangements for reducing the national debt, for establishing commercial banks, and for encouraging colonists to settle in his dominions. In Sweden the discovery of a conspiracy against the life of the crown prince excited a great sensation, and drew forth expressions of concern from the metropolis, and also from the representatives of the people. In Germany, a free constitution was adopted by the duchy of Saxe Weimer, and subsequently placed under the guarantee of the German confederation; but in Wurtemberg the king found it necessary to dissolve the assembly of his states; in consequence of their unwillingness to confirm a constitution which he submitted to their consideration. In the Netherlands the government acquired considerable popularity by abolishing an exclusive commercial company, which had for some time existed in the northern provinces; and by throwing open the trade with China.

A. D. 1818. The imperial parliament was opened on the 28th of January by commission; and in the speech of the prince Regent delivered on that occasion, it was stated that treaties had been concluded with the Courts of Spain and Portugal, on the subject of the final abolition of the slave trade; that a favourable change had taken place in most departments of public industry; and that several branches of the revenue were in a state of progressive improvement. The attention of parliament was also directed to the deficiency of places of public worship, belonging to the established church, in comparison with the increasing population of the country.

A bill for repealing the suspension of the habeas corpus act having been carried in both houses, a number of papers relative to the state of the country were brought forward by command of the Prince Regent; and on the 23rd of February, the report of the secret committee appointed to examine them was presented in the house of lords. In referring to the powers with which ministers had been invested in the preceding session, the

report stated, that forty-four persons had been arrested, under warrants from the secretary of state, who had never been brought to trial. Of this number seven had been discharged after their examination; thirty-seven were detained on suspicion of high treason; one was fully committed, but subsequently set at liberty; one was released on account of indisposition, and another died during his confinement. The whole of these events were stated to have been justified by existing circumstances; and the committee expressed a strong conviction, that in the exercise of the powers which had been placed in their hand, ministers had acted both discreetly and moderately; and that the vigilance of the magistrates in the districts had contributed very materially to the preservation of the public peace. A bill of indemnity, founded on this report, was then introduced into parliament, and passed.

In the month of March the sum of one million sterling was voted to supply the deficiency of places of worship belonging to the established church. And another bill was introduced to empower the king, in council, on a solicitation to that effect, to order the division of any parish for ecclesiastical purposes, into two or more districts, each of which might have its respective church and minister; and also to authorise the erection of chapels of ease, the ministers of which might be appointed by the incumbent of the parish, subject to the approbation of the bishop of the diocese.

On the 13th of April his royal highness the Prince Regent communicated to parliament the intended marriage of the duke of Clarence with the princess of Saxe Meinengen, and that of the duke of Cambridge with the princess of Hesse. The sum of £6,000 per annum was accordingly voted as an addition to the income of each of the royal dukes, with the grant of the same allowance to their duchesses in the event of their surviving their husbands. And in the following month a parliamentary provision to the same amount was made to the duke of Kent on his union with the princess dowager of Leinengen, sister to prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg. Nothing further transpired worthy of notice during this session, excepting the introduction of a bill for amending the regency act, and the formation of a committee to consider of a bill proposed by Mr. Brougham, for the education of the poor. At the close of the session parliament was dissolved.

In France the aspect of public affairs appeared so favourable, that the period seemed to have arrived when, without incurring the slightest danger, the foreign military force, called the army of occupation, might be withdrawn from that country. Accordingly a congress of European monarchs was held, in the autumn, at Aix la Chapelle, and after mature deliberation, that measure was fully adopted; 30,000 men having been previously withdrawn in the preceding year.

On the 6th of May a royal decree was issued by the king of Portugal, at Rio de Janeiro, for the abolition of the slave trade on the north of the equator. By this decree penalties were imposed on all traders who should engage in the prohibited traffic, and regulations were established for the support and protection of the slaves, who, in consequence of these penalties, should be set at liberty. In the ports, on the south of the line, however, the hateful and inhuman trade was still to be permitted under certain regulations.

In Sweden the demise of Charles XIII. which occurred on the 5th of February, was immediately followed by the establishment of the French dynasty, in the person of Bernadotte, formerly a general in the service of Buonaparte, who succeeded to the crown, under the name of Charles John, and was recognised by the other European potentates.

In India the British arms were called into action both by the aggressions of the Pindarees, and by a formidable combination of the native princes, which terminated in the deposition of the Peishwa, and the abolition of the Mahratta power. Some of the provinces of Ceylon were also agitated by an insurrection on the behalf of some pretender to royal dignity, but by the timely and vigilant exertions of Sir R. Brownrigg, the governor, the rebellion was soon and completely suppressed.

In America hostilities were, for some time, carried on between the United States and the Seminoles, a tribe of Indians residing almost wholly within the frontiers of Florida; and whom the Spanish government had engaged, by treaty, to restrain from committing any act of aggression. In pursuit of these Indians, general Jackson crossed the limits of Florida, and took possession of St. Mark's and Pensacola, which, however, were subsequently given up to the Spanish authorities. This led to a protracted correspondence between the two governments, and the president alluded to it in his message

to congress, in the month of November. In the same message a picture was drawn of the Spanish South American colonies: from which it appeared that the government of Buenos Ayres had continued to act upon the principles of that independency which it had declared in the year 1816; that Paraguay, Entre Rios, and the Banda Oriental, were likewise independent, though unconnected with the former power; that Chili had declared itself on the side of liberty, and had formed a close connexion with Buenos Ayres; and that Venezuela was conflicting in the same cause with various success; but that all the other parts of South America, excepting those belonging to Portugal, were still held under the authority or influence of the crown of Spain.

In her domestic concerns England began to assume the appearance of tranquillity in consequence of the abundant produce of the harvest, the improvement in several branches of trade, and the diversion of the minds of the people from the schemes of treasonable agitators by the interest connected with a general election. In the vicinity of Manchester, indeed, a restless spirit seemed to pervade the labouring classes; but the presence of a considerable military force precluded any attempt to disturb the public tranquillity.

Her majesty, Queen Charlotte, had been for some time in a declining state, and through the medium of the medical bulletins the public had been for several weeks prepared to expect the result, which took place on the 17th of November. After long protracted sufferings, such as frequently occur in the case of dropsy, after extreme exhaustion, and finally after mortification, her majesty departed this life in the 75th year of her age, and was buried at Windsor.

A. D. 1819. The new parliament assembled on the 14th of January, and one of its first measures related to a change in the Windsor establishment, rendered necessary by the recent demise of the queen. By this act a considerable saving might have been effected; but the sum of £50,000 per annum was, for the future, to be appropriated to this establishment, and £10,000 per annum was granted to the Duke of York, as guardian of the king's person. In the same sessions some arrangements were made for the resumption of cash payments by the Bank; a bill was passed for abolishing trial by battle; and another bill was introduced for encouraging emigration to the Cape of Good Hope.

The domestic peace of the country was again disturbed by the renewal of public meetings, in which inflammatory harangues were delivered by various political orators, and resolutions were passed by acclamation, recommending annual parliaments, universal suffrage, and vote by ballot, as the only true remedies for all national grievances. At one of these meetings convened near Birmingham, it was voted that Sir C. Wolleslev, of Staffordshire, should be sent up to parliament as representative of that town; but he was soon afterwards arrested and held to bail for certain expressions said to have been uttered by him. At another meeting in Smithfield, a dissenting preacher of the name of Harrison was also taken into custody; and on the 16th of August a dreadful and sanguinary scene occurred at Manchester, in consequence of the introduction of the yeomanry cavalry, by the magistrates, whilst a body of persons, supposed to have amounted to 60,000, were peaceably assembled, for the object of petitioning for a reform in parliament. Mr. Hunt, the political orator, having been taken into custody, the flags of the populace were struck down, and great numbers were immediately trampled on or sabred without distinction of age or sex, so that the ground was wholly cleared in a very short time, and between three or four hundred were ascertained to be either killed, wounded, or otherwise dreadfully injured. By this unprecedented act of violence the public indignation was roused to the utmost pitch, and various addresses were drawn up and presented to the Prince Regent on this subject; but as these were at variance with the feelings of his ministers, they were productive of no beneficial result. On the contrary, in the next session of parliament, bills were passed, not only for suppressing seditious libels, for preventing illegal meetings and military training, and for authorizing the seizure of arms supposed to be designed for treasonable purposes; but even for subjecting cheap publications to a duty, and for requiring the publishers of such tracts and papers to enter into recognizances, or to give security for the payment of any penalties which might be inflicted on them.

New anxieties and new sorrows were interwoven with the opening month of the new year. On the 23rd of January the public mind received a severe shock by the death of his royal highness the duke of

A. D. 1820.

Kent, at Sidmouth, in Devonshire, after a very short but painful illness, arising from a recent cold, which produced an inflammation of the lungs ; and the bodily health of the king had for some time past been considered to have been materially affected by the infirmities of age, and symptoms of a rapid decay had more recently threatened the termination of his existence ; an event which occurred about half past eight o'clock on Saturday evening, January the 29th, in the 82nd year of his age, and the 60th of his reign. His remains, with those of his son, were solemnly interred in the royal vault of Windsor, and the sovereignty of the British empire became vested in his majesty, King George the Fourth.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

GEORGE IV.

A. D. 1820—1830.

GEORGE IV. ascended the British throne under circumstances of peculiar felicity. For many years he had performed all the functions of royalty in the name of his venerable father, by which he obtained a thorough knowledge of the executive government, of the state of the nation, and likewise of foreign politics. The transition from the regency, to the monarchy, was scarcely perceptible. Matured in years, he had every advantage which could be obtained from long experience as the head of the state, resulting from difference of opinion, protracted hostilities, diplomatic transactions, and from the effects of the most splendid victories which ever adorned the annals of any nation.

Immediately after his accession he fell into a dangerous illness, which alarmed the nation, lest they should be bereaved of their sovereign, who had given such proofs of judgment and ability in conducting the affairs of the state. It proved, however, less dangerous than the public apprehended, depriving him only of the gratification of expressing his feelings to parliament, which according to custom came to be dissolved. This event was followed by one of the most atrocious conspiracies ever devised by the worst of men in the worst of times. At the head of it was one Arthur Thistlewood, originally a druggist at Newark, in Nottingham-

shire, afterwards a subaltern in the militia, and at last in the army. This man had been in America and in France during the bloodiest time of the revolution, where, it is probable, he imbibed his republican opinions, and became habituated to the most shocking scenes of cruelty. To legal technicalities and nice distinctions he owed his escape from the consequences of a former conspiracy. Impunity increased his audacity, and he formed the most inhuman scheme recorded in British history, since the era of the Gunpowder Plot. This wretch, with James Ings, a butcher; William Davidson, a creole; John Thomas Brunt, and Richard Tidd, shoemakers, planned the overthrow of government by the assassination of his majesty's ministers. At first they determined to murder them individually: in their own houses, and fixed on the 23rd of February for the carnage; but Thistlewood obtained information that Lord Harrowby in Grosvenor square, would, on the 24th of that month, give a cabinet dinner, at which news Thistlewood, transported with savage joy, exclaimed, " There would be fourteen or sixteen present, and that it would be a rare haul to dispatch them at the same time." About fifty persons had bound themselves by oath to accomplish that massacre, or sacrifice their own lives. One of the conspirators, named Wilson, whose heart revolted at the crime, communicated the particulars to the ministers, who announced the dinner in the newspapers, and took care that every thing might have the appearance which the assassins expected, and that there should be nothing to excite their suspicion. They had hired a stable in Cato Street, to which they repaired that evening, put on their arms, and were waiting for the hour fixed for the execution of the plot, when a party of constables, supported by the military under captain Fitzclarence seized some of them in the loft with arms in their hands; others escaped, among whom was Thistlewood; but he was taken next morning in bed. Thistlewood, Brunt, Davidson, Ings, and Kidd were tried, condemned, and, after being strangled, beheaded. Five were sentenced to banishment during life, and one was pardoned.

The spirit of discontent and rebellion produced tumultuous assemblies in the manufacturing towns and districts of the country. In England, particularly about Huddersfield, Leeds, and Wakefield, drillings took place during the night, pikes were manufactured, and fire arms procured from every

quarter. On 3rd April 1820, from two to three hundred of the insurgents met with arms and standards in Grangemoor, about six miles from Huddersfield. Disappointed at the smallness of their number, they felt strong indignation at the inflammatory harangues of the popular orators by whom they had been excited to rebellion by false representations; they threw down their arms before the arrival of the cavalry sent against them, dispersed, and made no other attempt to disturb the tranquillity of the country. In Scotland, the disposition to overturn the constituted order of things existed chiefly in Glasgow, and its vicinity. Great alarm was excited by the conduct of the seditious, who were goaded on by insidious writings, and by the mischievous invectives of several violent oppositionists, who were the first to quit the district on the slightest appearance of personal danger. A few of the rebels took up arms, in expectation of a general rising. Of these deluded men, some peaceably separated without committing any act of violence; others fled at the sight of the military, and a few were made prisoners at Bonnymuir, in the neighbourhood of Falkirk. Of these, two suffered as traitors at Stirling, the rest pleaded guilty and were banished. A man of the name of Wilson, a promoter of sedition and French principles from 1789, atoned for his crimes by an ignominious death at Glasgow. This pestilent man seemed to have no idea of the world to come; even on the hurdle, as he was dragged to execution, he was as indifferent as any one of the numerous spectators. With these executions the rebellion in Scotland disappeared.

In 1796 the prince of Wales separated from the princess, who continued to live almost in a state of seclusion, seldom appearing in public, and seldom visited by any of the royal family, or by the nobility. She afterwards went on the continent, and upon her return to England was accused of adultery, publicly tried and acquitted. Upon her acquittal, London was illuminated; but the mental anxiety to which her trial gave rise, and the annoyances to which she was subsequently exposed, shortly reduced her to the grave.

In 1821 parliament disfranchised Grampound, as a punishment for the signal corruption of which a number of the voters had been guilty, and transferred the elective franchise to York. The subject, being new, long and keenly engaged the attention of the commons; but the bill passed the house of

lords on 21st May by a majority of 60 to 26. The determination of parliament with respect to Grampound seemed to acknowledge the principle of parliamentary reform which had of late years been brought so frequently under consideration, and encouraged its promoters to advance propositions of a general nature, which would have altered the representation to that degree, that the original constitution could have been scarcely recognised in its modified form. A majority in parliament dreaded the effects of innovation, argued against the expediency of such a measure, and outvoted their opponents, which put the question to rest, at least, during the present session.

Towards the end of 1821, Ireland exhibited scenes of perpetual outrage, extreme suffering, and, in many parts, of open rebellion. The sole cause of these crimes, in the opinion of the discontented, was famine, which, it cannot be doubted, afforded both encouragement and countenance to unprincipled men, always ready to take advantage of every occasion that offered the smallest prospect of accomplishing seditious purposes. The popish priests, in many instances, incurred great blame by heading the banditti guided by their counsels, and by witnessing the perpetration of enormities, at which humanity revolts. To secure the public tranquillity, and to protect the lives and property of the peaceful and the well-affected, parliament suspended the *habeas corpus* act, passed the insurrection act, and an act for indemnifying persons who had seized arms after the expiry of a bill granting that power, and for renewing the said act, and a third to regulate the importation of arms and gunpowder, limiting the quantity which any person could have of the latter without a special license from the lord lieutenant, or his secretary. By the activity of the magistracy and soldiery, many criminals were apprehended, who atoned for their guilt by an ignominious death. These executions, added to the forces scattered over the country, had the effect of diminishing the number of seditious meetings assembling in arms, and consequently of enforcing submission to the laws of the country. It was not merely the number of houses burnt, the quantity of property destroyed, and the crime of murder so frequently committed, that alarmed the friends of government ; but the systematic and organised plan which appeared in all their outrages, and the ferocity of their vengeance on all who bore evidence against the guilty in courts of justice, which deterred

those disposed to speak the truth, considering their lives in danger. It was necessary to confine witnesses in prison, both for the safety of their persons, and for obtaining the benefit of their evidence.

Marquis Wellesley, on his appointment to the office of lord lieutenant in Ireland, endeavoured to conciliate the papists, to whose claims he, from principle, was friendly, by depressing the Orange faction. Interference with the customs and usages of the Orangemen raised the spirit of party to an unprecedented height, nor was it difficult to foresee that this would be the necessary consequence. They despised the influence of the governor, whom they supposed biassed in favour of the papists, since they knew the influence of the legislature was on their side. Such an administration, they maintained, was not in harmony with the laws of Ireland, which place protestants above papists, and must ever keep up a spirit of irritation by unconstitutional depression on the one hand, and by exciting deceitful hopes on the other. Wellesley experienced the consequence of his conciliatory system in the theatre of Dublin, 14th December 1822. In place of acclamation, the audience received him with loud and continued hissing, and an empty bottle, with part of a watchman's rattle was thrown at his box. The tumult was quelled by force, and the most active rioters were apprehended ; of whom some were arraigned for exciting the commotion, and others for conspiring "to kill and murder" the lord lieutenant ! The measures pursued by the marquis were far from having the effect which he intended ; for they neither secured the tranquillity of the country, nor diminished the number of crimes and outrages.

The depressed state of the agricultural interest loaded the table of the house of commons with petitions on that important subject in 1822. Various opinions were delivered respecting the causes of that distress. It was attributed to excessive taxation ; to the existing corn laws ; to the resumption of metallic instead of paper payments ; to tithes and poor-rates : to the cessation of hostilities, and to many other causes, all of which were inadequate to account for the effect. The landlords, in many instances, had made abatements in the rents, but these proved insufficient to relieve the tenants from the hardships under which they laboured. Unless parliament could devise some means of relief, the landed gentlemen saw that their incomes would be subjected to much greater reductions, on which

account they used every means to prevail on the legislature to adopt measures for raising the price of agricultural produce. Perhaps the period is not far distant, when few will be disposed to believe, that so much was written on the subject without suggesting any real advantage, and that the British parliament should have spent so much time in discussing it, and vainly attempting to remove the evil by legislative enactment. Next year, when the matter came again under consideration, parliament adopted this idea, and declared that when agriculturists entered into injudicious speculations, they must bear the loss, as well as merchants or any other class of the community. They found it impossible to remove the distress complained of, without injustice to other sources of the revenue, and, on the matter coming to a vote, the majority was so overwhelming, that the question may be considered as finally at rest. In a subsequent year (1824) his majesty's ministers claimed, in both houses, considerable praise for the merit of preventing parliamentary interference in this matter.

The cause of agricultural distress is obvious. During the revolutionary war the produce of the soil brought exorbitantly high prices, and of course the rents of land rose in a similar proportion. In many parts of the country the price of land was tripled, quadrupled, and even quintupled. Farmers not only took leases at the highest rate which the present prices of markets justified; but even in expectation of their rising higher, and the uncommonly productive crops of 1820, 1821, and particularly 1822, brought down the prices of grain so much that they could not afford to pay even the one-half of their rents. Cattle had likewise fallen greatly in value during a few years preceding. No act of parliament could compel people to give more money for any article than the sum at which it might be obtained. During the period of which the agriculturists complained most loudly, they had the advantage of all foreign grain being excluded, yet, without competition, the produce of the soil fell so far short of the value of former years, that the farmer could only pay his rent by proportioning it to the marketable value of the produce. To relieve the cultivators of the soil, and to conciliate the landed interest, lord Castlereagh proposed a loan to the agriculturists, as had lately been done, with advantage, in the case of commercial distress. Against this measure strong and satisfactory objections were advanced, on which account he abandoned the

scheme. Parliament, on the motion of his lordship, adopted a new system of corn laws, formed with the best intention, and sanctioned by the legislature on the same principle; but their utility was much disputed, and they were subsequently altered.

During this session a number of bills were introduced, of which scarcely one deserves notice in an Abridgment, except the reduction of the Salt Tax from fifteen shillings a bushel to two shillings a bushel. The removal of half the duty on leather was followed by a rise on the price of that article. The tonnage duty was taken entirely off, and the whole amount of the taxes repealed this session was £3,500,000.

In the preceding year it was determined that a Congress of the united sovereigns should meet at Verona in October 1822, to adopt measures for securing the tranquillity of Italy, and to settle other matters of reciprocal interest. Before the plenipotentiaries from the different courts had repaired thither, events had occurred which excited the deep attention of the allied monarchs; the rupture between Russia and Turkey; the insurrection of the long oppressed Greeks, who had taken up arms for their own deliverance; the agitated state of Spain, and the menacing position lately assumed by France, in consequence of the tumults and dissenssions which prevailed in the peninsula. The infatuated conduct of the weak-minded Ferdinand VII. had disgusted and enraged a great part of the nation, particularly the friends of limited monarchy, and the Liberals, or Constitutionalists, who had the latter name from framing or approving a constitution somewhat on the representative system. The spirit of innovation among the Spaniards had proceeded under the guidance not of reason, but of madness; and the tract had been marked by all the atrocities resulting from ignorance of government, the jealousy of rivalship, and a total absence of moral principle. The new constitution equalled, if it did not surpass, any code of laws ever established for the regulation of a state, in almost every political absurdity. Besides, it was at variance with the opinions and prejudices of the mass of the people. The administration was in perfect consistency with the legislation, and both merited unqualified censure. In the destruction of human life the Spanish executive yielded to the French revolution; but it made ample compensation by imprisonment, confiscation, and banishment. In truth this hydra of anarchy was even more to be dreaded than the

reign of Ferdinand, although directed by ultra-loyalists and priests! A country in this state necessarily excited alarm in the neighbouring kingdoms, and called forth the vigorous efforts of the monarchs to prevent the overthrow both of the throne and the altar. The unhappy Spaniards, who had united with Britain in the expulsion of a foreign enemy, now threatened to turn their arms against each other; and every post, from that country, was expected to bring intelligence of the commencement of a civil war.

The Congress did not meet so early as had been expected, in consequence of the death of the marquis of Londonderry, who had been appointed the British plenipotentiary; and the ill health of the duke of Wellington, whom the cabinet considered the most proper person for filling the station of the deceased nobleman. By order of his court, the duke of Wellington exerted his utmost efforts to produce conciliation among the contending parties. His high character as a warrior, conjoined with his mild but firm conduct, commanded great attention, although the beneficial effects were perhaps less than might have been reasonably expected. He failed in a proposal for the total abolition of slavery, a measure which every friend to humanity would rejoice to see carried into full effect on the principles of justice and prudence. France made the most open and determined resistance against the suppression of that horrible traffic. The Congress effected nothing very decisive or important. A circular signed by Austria, Russia, and Prussia, announced the close of the convention on 14th December, and contained an outline of the political principles of these sovereigns, who had, after the destruction of the imperial government of France, entered, for their mutual defence, into a treaty which has received the name of the Holy Alliance, because they had bound themselves to govern according to the precepts of Scripture. Dread of revolutions suggested the idea of that union which, in their opinion, the convulsed state of Europe required; but it may be fairly questioned, if they have not run into the opposite extreme, and entered into resolutions hostile to the improvement of human society.

After the death of the marquis of Londonderry the station of prime minister was held by the earl of Liverpool, and that of secretary for foreign affairs by Mr. Canning. Mr. Vansittart was succeeded as chancellor of the exchequer, by

Mr. Robinson; Mr. Huskisson became president of the Board of trade, and Mr. Arbuthnot first commissioner of the land revenue. These appointments increased both the influence and popularity of the ministry.

On 14th April the diplomatic papers relative to the negotiations on the relations between France and Spain, were laid before both houses of parliament by lord Liverpool and Mr. Canning, who stated, in minute detail, the measures of the British cabinet with respect to these two nations, and justified the neutrality which ministers had adopted and maintained. The prudence and propriety of their conduct not only saved the country from the expense and carnage of an unnecessary war, to which they were violently urged by the opposition, but likewise from the injustice of interfering in the internal government of another kingdom. The nation, in general, commended the political wisdom displayed by the ministers which secured the blessings of peace on the grounds both of justice and expediency; "not," said lord Liverpool, "that I should feel any difficulty in finding the means to support war, without materially impairing any of the great sources of our prosperity."

The papists in Ireland had been relieved from certain disabilities in 1777, from others in 1782, and received the elective franchise in 1793. Numbers, in both houses of parliament, thought that it was acting unjustly to the English papists to withhold from them the privileges which had been granted to the members of the same church in Ireland; on that account, a bill was brought into parliament in 1823, to place the papists in England and Wales on the same footing with those of the neighbouring island. At the suggestion of Mr. Canning, this bill was divided into two; the one granting the elective franchise, and the other making papists eligible to certain offices in England and Wales. A large majority (80 to 30) carried the former through the house of commons; but, in the house of peers, the bill was lost by a majority of 80 to 73, through the influence of the lord chancellor; although it had the support of the earl of Liverpool, the earl of Westmoreland, and lord Melville. The other bill, making papists eligible to certain offices as already mentioned, likewise passed the house of commons; but was not introduced to the house of lords by the advice of the marquis of Lansdown, who foresaw that it would be reject-

ed. That nobleman brought both bills before the upper house next year, when a considerable majority voted against their enactment.

The enlarged and liberal system of commercial policy, which had been begun in the preceding year, was carried forward by Mr. Robinson, Mr. Huskisson, and Mr. Canning. Their object was to improve the foreign trade of the country, by the removal of certain duties which our ancestors had considered necessary for the protection of British manufactures. The commercial interest hailed the measures of the cabinet with the loudest applause; but the artists anticipated the ruinous consequences of this system, which experience soon fatally proved to the injury of all engaged in silk manufactures. The prosperity of the country, added to the continuance of peace, enabled the ministry to repeal some taxes, and to diminish others. The discussion of the slave trade in parliament excited a spirit of insubordination among the negroes in the West Indies, and nothing but the timely discovery of a conspiracy saved the lives of the white population in Demerara.

Ireland particularly in the southern districts, continued subject to atrocious outrages, which parliament wishing to check, renewed the insurrection act. Through the influence of ministers, a bill, to remove the evils of joint-tenants, and another for the composition of tithes, received the royal sanction. The former must be productive of beneficial consequences, as it protects the active against the oppressive exactions of the landlord, while it secures to them the fruit of their labours; and it compels the lazy to work, who formerly trusted to the exertions of their industrious fellow-tenants. The latter passed both houses of parliament, although acknowledged imperfect by the framers of it; because the ministry considered it better to leave the adoption of it optional with the clergy, than to compel them to accept of the composition, which would have, in some measure, changed a fundamental law of the church. Tithes are at best a tax unpleasant in principle, and may be rendered oppressive in operation; therefore farmers in general prefer giving at least an equivalent in any other way. In the course of two years, more than one-fourth of the Irish clergy accepted of the composition appointed by the act; a proof of their willingness to contribute, as far as in their power, to allay

the spirit of irritation, and to conciliate the affections of the peasantry. The influence of the popish clergy over their congregations is almost unbounded, and every friend to the tranquillity and prosperity of that island must regret, that it is not employed to promote the peace of the community by discouraging party feuds, and that implacable enmity cherished against their protestant countrymen. It cannot be mentioned but to the discredit of the popish priests, that they prevent the education of the children under their ministry, and withdraw them from the parochial schools, particularly if the reading of the Holy Scriptures forms any part of elementary tuition.

From the restoration of the Bourbons, France frequently gave proofs of considerable agitation, and of unwillingness to resume the peaceful habits of industry. The different political parties violently opposed each other; the loyalists expected to engross the favour of the monarch, and the democrats, or abettors of the revolution, caballed against them, so that the constitution was in danger of being overthrown by their personal animosities. The seeds of the revolution still produced injurious fruits, both by exciting popular disturbance, and aversion to the reigning family. The mild disposition and peaceful temper of Louis XVIII. led him to adopt a system intermediate between the extremes of ultra-loyalism and liberalism, and he studied to unite all parties by selecting a ministry of temperate political opinions, by which they might be attracted and united on the principles of moderation and impartiality. The success of the plan did not correspond with the excellence of its intention. For some time the ministry, by steering an even course between the opposite parties, proceeded in a calm and successful tenor, commanding only a small but steady majority in both chambers. Moderation is rarely an attribute of popular or representative assemblies. The loyalists and liberalists gradually strengthened their parties by individuals from the ministerialists until 1820, when some strong measure became necessary in order to prevent the servants of the crown from being outvoted, and consequently losing their offices. On the 13th February that year, a dreadful alarm was occasioned by the murder of the duke de Berri, the younger of the two sons of the count d'Artois, now Monsieur, by a man named Louvel, a menial in the king's stables, who thrust a

poniard into his breast, as he returned from the opera with his duchess, then advanced in pregnancy. The assassin boasted of the atrocious act, declared his intention of murdering the whole royal family, and assured his judges, that he had no accomplice. From his papers and the examination of witnesses, it did not appear that any other person was privy to the assassination.

The murder of the duke de Berri strengthened the hands of the ministry, by enabling them to carry an act corresponding to the suspension of the *habeas corpus* in England, with this difference, that it limited the period of confinement before trial to three months. This act was followed by the re-establishment of the censorship on the journals, which had only been removed a few months before. These triumphs on the part of the ministry excited the activity of their opponents, on which account a bolder measure seemed necessary. The constitution of 1815 empowered every one who paid 300 francs of taxes annually, to vote for a member in the Chamber of Deputies. This gave to the middling classes of the community a much greater political influence than is enjoyed by the same class in Scotland. To strengthen their party, the ministers proposed a change in the mode of election, which would have reduced the French government to a pure aristocracy; but the public opinion, undauntedly and somewhat tumultuously declared, had the effect of preventing the bill from passing into a law. The influence of the ministerial party, however, effected a considerable change in the Chamber, and in carrying that measure they showed more resolution than prudence, for the angry debates on the question had brought the country to the very verge of a revolution.

The duke of Richelieu, at the head of the ministry, found it necessary to come to an agreement with the aristocrats, in consequence of the additional strength which they had acquired by the late elections. Messrs. Villele, Corbieres, and Laine, the most moderate of that party, were admitted into the cabinet; but the first two gave in their resignations in the course of a few months, so that Richelieu's object was defeated, on which account he and his colleagues were soon obliged to retire. Among the most important events in French history for this year (1821) should be reckoned the death of Buonaparte, who had been long the scourge of Europe. He expired at St. Helena a few minutes before

six o'clock on the evening of the 5th of May. It were unjust to deny him the praise of a successful warrior and a profound politician; but there is nothing in his whole life which entitles him to the epithet of *Great.* He was the enemy of liberty in every form and in every country. His plans had no higher object than the aggrandisement of himself and his family; he formed no course with the view of benefitting either the kingdom of which he had usurped the government, or any other country over which his arms had extended. Selfishness, pure unmixed selfishness, regardless alike of the laws of humanity and justice, constituted the essence of his character. In Britain, his death did not produce a very strong impression, and scarcely excited any interest, except what had a reference to the lessening of our expenditure at St. Helena, by the reduction of that establishment. In France it gave rise to some allusions both of triumph and sorrow in the Chamber of Deputies, but had scarcely any effect upon the public funds, a proof of the indifference with which the nation regarded the termination of that ruthless usurper's life.

In 1822, Richelieu found it impossible to conduct the affairs of administration, in consequence of the increased number of his opponents. His own resignation, which was followed by that of his colleagues, made way for the promotion of an ultra-loyalist ministry, at the head of which was M. Villele. The inactivity of the late cabinet with regard to foreign policy, was productive of results, which the French considered dishonourable to them as a nation. Austria, Russia, and Prussia, had overturned the new constitution of Naples, and re-established the old system, without consulting the French ministers, and without their offering the slightest objection to that unjustifiable interference. The new ministry acted with firmness, and conducted the affairs of government with considerable ability, although violently opposed by the liberals and some of the moderate party. A succession of conspiracies kept the public mind in constant agitation; for one was no sooner discovered and quelled, than others demanded the vigilance of the executive government.

At Paris, numerous lodges were formed to procure liberty by force, to dethrone the Bourbons and to destroy the constitution. In general these combinations against the state

consisted of military men, who had probably served under the usurper, or during the time of the conventions. The students of law and medicine had long shown a spirit of insubordination, and the legislature found it necessary to suppress the faculty of medicine at Paris. The ministry made a laudable effort for the establishment of schools over the kingdom, mostly on the Lancasterian plan. Under the old system, on account of the inactivity of the teachers, and indolence of the scholars, two-thirds of the French nation could not read. In 1822, there were 25,000 communes without a school.

The views of Louis XVIII. coinciding with the measures of the Holy Alliance, that monarch assembled, on the frontiers of Spain, a powerful armament in 1822, under pretext of preserving the inhabitants of the southern provinces of France against an epidemic then prevalent in the northern parts of Spain; but in reality to overawe the constitutionalists, and to secure the crown to its present possessor. The ultra-loyalists in Spain execrated the new constitution, as did also the greater part of the priests. It can excite no wonder, that the changes adopted by the liberals provoked the indignation of the ecclesiastics, since the confiscation of the church lands, and the persecution of the religious orders, were favourite measures with the innovators. The limited powers of Ferdinand's mind rendered him a fit subject, in the hands of these two parties, for carrying their cruel and iniquitous plans into complete effect. These enemies both of political and religious liberty succeeded in making the imbecile monarch a bigot and a tyrant, who had no other aim than the aggrandisement of the clergy and the establishment of despotism. To relate his numerous acts of folly, ingratitude, injustice, oppression, and cruelty, to say nothing of his ignorance of human character and of executive government, would require a volume; and such a detail belongs not to British, but to Spanish history. In all the vices which mark the reign of Ferdinand, the cortes, or executive administration of the constitution, at least equal, if they do not surpass the government of the despot. In modern times, Europe has seen nothing so intrinsically bad as the two codes of laws, if such they may be called, by which the opposite parties, the monarch and the liberals, attempted to regulate the affairs of that unfortunate country. Besides, the latter were at enmity amongst themselves, and divided into

numerous parties, spending their time and strength against each other, to the ruin of the country, and to the destruction of liberty. In this state of matters the marching of a powerful French army across the Pyrenees probably saved a number of lives. The commander-in-chief, the duke d'Angouleme, found little difficulty in overrunning the country, occupying Madrid, and compelling the liberals, who had carried the king along with them to Cadiz, to deliver him up. The manifestoes and proclamations, which appeared with the signature of Ferdinand VII. whilst he was in the hands of his enemies, are entitled to little credit, since he probably did violence to his own inclination and judgment, in complying with the commands of those on whom his life depended. Justice to the duke d'Angouleme requires that it be recorded that he acted with great lenity, restrained his army from acts of violence and rapacity, and advised the Spanish king to comply with the wishes of the people, in making such concessions and alterations as were not inconsistent with the dignity and just prerogative of the crown. For his success in Spain, the French loaded the duke d'Angouleme with extravagant applause, and he entered Paris in the manner of a conqueror.

The Portuguese, after a period of triumphant naval renown which extended their dominion both in the Eastern and Western world, sunk into a state of degradation, so as scarcely to be accounted even among the secondary powers of Europe, and submitted to the galling yoke of unlimited authority. The vigorous effort made by this nation against the invasion of the French, overcame, in some measure, the lethargic habit and listless indifference which pervaded the great mass of the people. The Spanish new constitution excited them to an imitation of the example of their neighbours, which, after an unsuccessful attempt or two, they carried into effect, with comparatively little agitation, and almost without bloodshed. In the revolutionary career of these two nations, a very remarkable difference of character is displayed. The Spaniards, disregarding the feelings and prejudices of the people, and even the guarantee of their property and lives, vamped up a constitution, now modified by the violence of the soldiers, now by the licentiousness of the mob. But the Portuguese committed the important work to men of eminence, talents, and integrity, who proceeded with caution and judgment, revering the established

religion and respecting monarchical authority. On the other hand, military demagogues planned or framed the new constitution in Spain, and, from the vices of their profession, disregarded alike moral principle and religious feeling. The cortes of Portugal rejected, in most instances, the theoretical doctrines of political demagogues, and on the basis of justice and reciprocal benefit, erected a limited monarchy without intrenching on the property of any class. Amidst numerous improvements accomplished without violence or tumult, they adopted a few alterations which a greater knowledge of government or more mature deliberation would have rejected; yet these injudicious changes, from the absence of violence and outrage, produced no very mischievous effects. Their error consisted in having only one chamber, in excluding the clergy and nobility, who ought to have formed another, or house of peers, and in refusing the king an absolute *veto.* John VI. approved of the new constitution before he left the Brazils, and on 4th July 1821, the day he landed at Lisbon, swore to its observance. The Portuguese armies in South America soon obtained notice of the new constitution, and they resolved immediately to imitate the course which had been pursued at Lisbon. On 1st January 1821, a revolution without bloodshed was accomplished at Para. Bahia next month witnessed a similar change, and Pernambuco followed their example. Rio de Janeiro, the seat of royal power, was not awed by the presence of the court, nor prevented from adopting the new constitution, to which Monte Video assented on 20th March. The inhabitants at large do not appear to have taken much interest in these changes, which were almost wholly brought about by the agency of military officers. The king and queen sanctioned the proceedings at Rio de Janeiro by their presence, and, on 26th April, they set sail, with 900 families of the city, for Europe.

The monarch instructed Don Pedro, the prince royal, whom he left governor of the American provinces, to retain by whatever means, these rich territories. The residence of the royal family in that country raised the spirits of the colonists, ameliorated the general state of society, extended the advantages of commerce, and rendered the situation of the Brazilians preferable to that of the Portuguese, who were both deprived of their sovereign, and subject to the

merciless domination of France. They considered themselves on a level with the inhabitants of the mother-country, and this idea naturally produced an aversion at the thought of returning to their former state of colonial vassalage. Animated by the spirit of independence so widely diffused over America, they almost immediately refused submission to the delegated authority of the prince, and withheld their contributions to government. Instead of sending remonstrances or representations to Rio de Janeiro, the provincial juntas communicated directly with Lisbon, concerted measures for their separate administrations, and claimed the privilege of being represented in the cortes of Portugal. The provinces acknowledging no federal head, became independent, each adopting the system judged best suited to their particular situation. The cortes at Lisbon, perceiving the injurious consequences which would result from this state of the country, in order to put an end to the general confusion and agitation, resolved to divide the administration into provincial governments, and to recal the prince royal in expectation of securing these rich possessions to the mother-country. With that view, they passed two decrees on 29th January 1821, against which the juntas expressed their indignation in strong language, and prayed the prince, for whose family and person they professed the greatest esteem, not to leave them. With their wishes Don Pedro complied; but whether induced by love to the Brazilians, the wealth of the provinces, dislike of the Portuguese cortes, or ambition of the crown, remains undetermined. It is certain that he supported with firmness and alacrity every measure of the constitutionalists, who conferred upon him first the title of *Prince Regent and Constitutional Protector of Brazil*, and afterwards of *Constitutional Emperor and Perpetual Dictator of Brazil*, of which the population is estimated at about four millions. He condemned the conduct of the cortes, thwarted all their plans with respect to America, and compelled the Portuguese troops in that quarter to embark for Europe. The measures which the colonists now adopted, soon effected a total separation between Portugal and Brazil, and were executed under the eye, and, in some instances, under the direction, of the heir-apparent to the crown of Portugal. These changes were accomplished without a great expense of blood, although a considerable num-

ber, from love to the old monarchy, shewed a willingness to sacrifice their lives in its defence.

John VI. yielded to every suggestion of the cortes, and swore to the observance of every decree which that body passed, an oath which the queen declined to take, and, for that refusal, the cortes banished her the kingdom, denying her the gratification of being accompanied by her two daughters. The ministers of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, withdrew from Portugal at the commencement of the revolution; but Britain continued her alliance, and promised protection if attacked by a foreign enemy. On the French army entering Spain, the cortes displayed both activity and energy, formed an alliance with the liberals in the sister kingdom, raised an army of 60,000 men, and put the country in a state of defence. The British ministry had resolved, that Portugal should not be attacked; that there should be no interference with Spanish or Portuguese America; and that France should not retain a permanent possession of Spain. This determination, which was well known to all the European courts, deterred the invaders from entering the Portuguese territories, for it would have inevitably involved them in war with Great Britain. To the credit of the Portuguese constitutionalists, it should be mentioned, that they acted in general with coolness, moderation, and justice. No foreign nation interfered with their measures, nor did the king show any aversion at their proceedings, but allowed matters to go on till the new order of things was terminated by a counter-revolution, in consequence of the omissions already mentioned. The constitution, supported solely by the professional and trading classes in great cities, had been from the first detested by the clergy and nobility, and, through them, by the peasantry. Besides, commerce had nearly ceased, agriculture had languished, industry slackened, and the troops became discontented, because they were ill paid. The army wished, besides an absolute *veto* to the king, two chambers, which ought to have been established at the first, and would probably have had the effect of securing a limited monarchy. The constitutionalists did not fail either in the wisdom of their plans, or in promptitude of execution; but the general voice of the nation was against them, and for the overthrow of the new system. There was little appeal to arms, and the subversion of the constitution restored to

John VI. the absolute monarchy of Portugal. For this restoration to his ancient rights, the king of France sent him his congratulation! John promised to give to his subjects a system of laws, which would secure them greater privileges and advantages than they had enjoyed under the late order of things, and with this declaration they seemed satisfied.

The queen and her son Don Miguel, whom his father, after the final separation of the cortes, had appointed commander-in-chief, resolved to set the monarch aside; because his mild temper revolted at the idea of imitating the proscriptive system of his brother-in-law, the king of Spain. Prince Miguel, then, at the suggestion of the queen, made his father a prisoner, and executed every plan which her ambition and cruelty recommended. Perhaps the king might have fallen a victim to this usurpation, had he not, by the advice of lord Beresford, the British minister, gone on board the Windsor-castle, a British ship of war then lying in the road of Lisbon, where the foreign ministers soon joined him. Now in safety, he issued a declaration, condemning the conduct of his son, Don Miguel, and annulling all that had been signed or done in his name during the last four days. Deserted by the army, the prince found it necessary to go on board, and beg the pardon of his injured parent, who forgave his past conduct, on condition that he should spend a few years in travelling for his improvement! The queen was ordered to retire to a residence in the country, and the aged monarch continued to govern with mildness and without molestation for the remainder of his reign.

Pedro declared, in a proclamation dated 21st October 1822, "Brazil no longer forms an integral part of the old Portuguese monarchy, but nothing prevents the continuation of their commercial relations." Prudence combined with judgment would have accepted this alliance, which the cortes of Portugal foolishly rejected; and the Brazilians, exasperated at their conduct, issued letters of marque against every ship bound for Portugal. Not satisfied with this violent procedure, they furnished naval stores, free of expense except on certain conditions, to all the Brazilians, who fitted out privateers, and authorized their consuls, residing at different ports, to grant such letters to all foreigners who should apply for them. These decrees might be regarded as preliminary steps to active hostilities: yet Portugal, either from

conviction of her own weakness, or from advice tendered by the British cabinet, instead of engaging in war against her revolted provinces, seemed in a short time willing to acknowledge their independence.

The intrigues of rivals for power, and difference of political opinions, began to prevail in the new empire, and excited stormy discussions in the congress, on which account the emperor dissolved it by military force, and convoked another. These dissensions appeared to have been heightened by a suspicion of Pedro's aiming at despotic power, and of his being inclined to promote a union with Portugal. His subsequent conduct showed that this suspicion was groundless, since the basis for a fundamental law of the monarchy which he proposed, inclined more to popular forms and power than to the royal prerogative. Although far from perfect, it secured the liberty of the subject and the tranquillity of the state ; consequently the municipality gave it a ready assent. The dissolution of the congress by arms, the inordinate anxiety to expel from the country all the Portuguese who had not taken the oath to the Brazilian government, and the measures adopted at Madeira, by the commander-in-chief of the Portuguese army, occasioned a considerable waste of human blood. The emperor did not allow the commissioners, sent from the mother-country to treat with the new government, to land; but returned them to Europe in a Brazilian ship. The prudent measures which the imperialists adopted with respect to foreign countries, increased their revenues, and, at the close of 1823, the exchequer of Brazil seemed in a flourishing state. Their success in arms quieted the republicans who appeared in different parts of the provinces, quelled the commotions which were not numerous, and the conquest of Monte Video reduced that part of South America under the subjection of the Brazilian government.

The gradual rise in the price of all agricultural produce alleviated the distress of the British farmers in 1824, and silenced the murmurings of the landed gentlemen. The content produced by this happy change of circumstances saved parliament the trouble of discussing "agricultural distress," or attempting to devise means, as in former years, for ameliorating the condition of landlord and farmer at the expense of their fellow-subjects. The labouring classes obtained sufficient employment at advanced wages, which enabled them to bear the rise on provisions, and rendered them both happy

and satisfied. The abettors of treason only complained of altered circumstances, for there were no discontented purchasers to support the sedition of the public press. Except the disturbances in Ireland, all was tranquillity, a satisfactory proof of the general prosperity of the country. Improvement in trade and commerce proved a stimulus to industry, and increased our financial resources, considered by some a consequence of the liberal system lately adopted. The example of the British cabinet was followed by Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, and some other states, which made equal returns on the principle of reciprocal advantage. It formed a subject of regret, that the narrow-minded policy of some great kingdoms rigidly adhered to the exclusive system, and consequently limited the benefits which Europe might otherwise have obtained.

Lord Holland carried a law enabling the earl marshal (the duke of Norfolk) and his deputy to exercise that high office, without taking the oath of supremacy or signing the declaration against transubstantiation. Both against the principle of the act and against the trick, the duke of Newcastle and lord Abingdon entered a protest upon the journals of the house of peers. Five acts passed this session, which reversed the attainders of the earls of Mar, Kenmure, and Perth; and of lords Stafford and Nairn. The great variety of weights and measures, not only over the kingdom, but frequently in the same county, had often been a subject of complaint, and frequently brought under the consideration of parliament, without the adoption of any particular plan to remove the evil. This year the business was managed with greater judgment, and a bill for "uniformity of weights and measures," to commence on 1st May, 1825, received the sanction of the legislature. The repeal of the stamp duties upon law proceedings must be considered a great improvement in the administration of justice. Bills to repeal the laws for regulating wages in the silk manufactures; for regulating the duties on the importation of raw and thrown silk; for granting bounties on the exportation of silk manufactures, and for imposing a duty of 30 per cent. on the importation, instead of the prohibition of silk goods, passed both houses, without much opposition. Artists were prohibited by act of parliament from emigrating :—an unjust restriction, and easily evaded, on which account it was this year removed by the

legislature. Injurious consequences followed the repeal of the combination act, in different parts of the country, particularly about Leeds, Manchester, and Glasgow.

The state of commerce and the revenue was highly flourishing. Cotton manufactures, the export of which in 1785 did not exceed £864,000, in 1822 amounted to £33,337,000, and the average of 1823 and 1824 was £22,523,832. The amount of taxes repealed in 1824 was £1,250,000, and in the former year £3,200,000.

In 1824 the constabulary act had a considerable effect in restraining outrages in the agitated counties of Ireland, but the tendency to violence and crime remained unabated; on this account the legislature renewed the insurrection act, which some of the most zealous friends of the popish population, who always vote against the ministry, considered indispensable. The tenants attributed the evils, which distressed the country, to the landholders, and the landholders to the bigotry of the clergy. To the latter should be added the unemployed inhabitants, because it is impossible to reconcile tranquillity with idleness. Industry is peaceful; but laziness, tumultuous. The population must be trained to active industry from their early years, have their minds imbued with moral principle, and impressed with the awful truths of religion, before either subordination or security can be established unless by military force. At present sunk to the lowest rank of rational existence, the greater number of the popish peasants fluctuate between hopeless indolence and desperate mischief. No advantage resulted from the establishment of schools, for the reasons already mentioned; and the popish bishops in 1824 complained by petition to the house of lords, "that the public money granted for the promotion of the education of the poor in Ireland was applied in such a manner, that the Roman Catholics could not conscientiously avail themselves of the instruction thereby provided." The objection was founded almost solely on the Bible being used in the schools. The popish priesthood displayed the same spirit in the outrageous opposition made by them against the operation of bible societies. An act received the royal assent on 17th June, 1824, making it lawful for any person to hold and execute any office in the management, collection, and receipt of the revenue without taking any oath, except those of allegiance and fidelity.

The immense sum of unoccupied capital, and the low rate of interest, induced money-holders to contract for foreign loans, and to form joint stock companies to an unprecedented extent. To check the rapid increase of the latter, the house of lords judged it expedient to pass a resolution, that two-thirds of the intended capital should be actually subscribed before the bill for the incorporation of any joint stock company should be read the second time. The consequences of these speculations in the commercial world were severely experienced next year.

The Spanish colonies in South America, after some years of turbulence, engendered by a spirit of aversion at their colonial vassalage, openly revolted, took up arms to secure their independence, and renounced all allegiance to Ferdinand VII. The feeble and distracted state of the mother-country rendered every attempt at suppression chimerical and absurd. The regular troops remained faithful to their sovereign, displaying both military skill, and undaunted bravery; but the insurgents outnumbered them, and acquired a knowledge of warfare by every successive engagement. For some time, matters assumed a doubtful appearance, victory now declaring for the loyalists, now for the revolters. The ranks of the latter were filled up, and even augmented, after every defeat; the regulars diminished in number at every encounter, from Spain being unable to send reinforcements either by sea or land. On 26th April, 1820, Ferdinand issued a proclamation, with the view of procuring a reconciliation with these colonies. Conscious of their superiority to the Spanish monarch, and protected by Britain against foreign aggression, they refused to treat, unless on terms of absolute independence. The inhabitants of Spain, both loyalists and liberals, spurned at the idea of such an acknowledgment; and the colonists proceeded gradually to conquer the country, and to form treaties of alliance with other nations, by which their commerce might be extended, and their finances enlarged. With respect to these colonies, the British cabinet acted with great propriety, taking part neither with them, nor with the parent country, and declaring resistance, if any other state should interfere. How different the conduct of Spain in the American war!

The success of the French against the Spaniards, in the eyes of a vain people, shed a lustre on the national character,

effaced from their minds the tyrannical grounds on which the war had been undertaken, and brought to their remembrance the military glory of the revolution. The cabinet formed a deep-laid scheme to establish an administrative despotism, by remodelling the chamber of deputies, as they said, on purpose to strengthen all the bases of the monarchy, and increase the power of the crown. They proposed a copious indemnity to the emigrants, by which the ancient nobility of France might be restored to their former lustre, and meant to replace the kingdom on the footing previous to the revolution, which would have rendered the two chambers mere tools in the hands of the executive. The measure contemplated to obtain money for accomplishing this purpose was, to reduce the interest of the national debt from 5 to 4 per cent., which excited violent indignation, because the incomes of so many arose wholly from that source. To pacify the public creditors, Villele raised the capital one-fourth, reduced the interest to 3 per cent., and this change received the sanction of the deputies; but was rejected by the peers. The failure of the ministry proved a blessing to the liberty of France, for, before a dissolution of parliament could take place in its natural course, the patriots expected that liberty would strike its roots so deep, that the united efforts of the sovereign and his ministers would not be able to eradicate them. Notwithstanding this memorable defeat, the ministry carried the law of septennial election, as likewise that for establishing a censorship over the public press.

On 16th September, 1824, Louis XVIII. expired, and was succeeded by his brother, formerly the count d'Artois, afterwards Monsieur, now Charles X. His majesty had only one son, the duke d'Angouleme, now dauphin of France, who married in 1799 Maria Teresa, only surviving child of the unhappy Louis XVI. There has been no issue of this marriage. The loyalists, as well as the royal family, felt their grief for the murder of the duke of Berri somewhat alleviated by the duchess' safe delivery of a son on 29th September, 1820, hailing it as an event which gave additional security to the throne of the Bourbons. The joy of this wished-for birth was heightened by the failure of a cruel and unmanly attempt of an officer, named Gravier, who twice discharged a bomb-shell under the windows of the duchess, with the murderous intention of causing a premature delivery. Appre-

hended in the second attempt, he was sentenced to death; but, at the intercession of the princess, his life was saved.

The first measures of the new monarch indicated liberality of sentiment; he reinstated the faculty of law at Grenoble in its functions, which had been, some years before, suppressed on account of its political spirit, and on 29th September he removed the censorship imposed on the public press on 15th August last. He opened the first session of the French Chambers on 22nd December, 1824, in a speech full of affection for his predecessor, and recommending indemnification to the sufferers in the revolution. The justice of this measure secured it the almost unanimous approbation both of the deputies and peers, who considered it "worthy of a new reign, and worthy of France." The peers passed the project to indemnify the emigrants, but confirmed the possession of the property to the present holders, and to the bill in its modified form the chamber of deputies afterwards agreed. This decision, which set the question for ever at rest, was far from satisfying the emigrants, who expected that the chamber would restore the estates which belonged to them, or their ancestors, before the revolution. The proposal for the reduction of the *rentes* received the sanction of the legislature, and the king acknowledged the independence of St. Domingo, which the nation considered the forerunner of other liberal measures. The merchants and bankers petitioned the sovereign on his accession for commercial treaties, and official agents, with the new governments of South America. It was expected that Charles X. would be the first of all the continental monarchs to enter into treaties of intercourse with these states. The French government, acting on this liberal principle, endeavoured to convince Ferdinand VII. that it was not in his power to reconquer Spanish America, that no other state would attempt to conquer these colonies for him, that they, of their own accord, would never submit to the dominion of Spain, and that their hostility, besides injuring trade, kept up a revolutionary spirit both in Spain and in other countries. Such salutary counsel, although strongly recommended by the British cabinet, the weak minded and tyrannical Ferdinand obstinately rejected. France then admitted Columbian ships into her ports, provided they did not carry the national flag. Charles X. was crowned at Rheims with great pomp and solemnity on 19th

May, 1825. During the remainder of this year nothing deserving notice occurred either in France or in her colonies.

Spain possessed great interest before the invasion by the French; but the conquest of the country produced a complete alteration, and rendered the kingdom comparatively insignificant. The king abolished every law and institution posterior to the 7th March, 1820, and the Liberals or Constitutionalists had abrogated every political institution, which existed before that date. It need scarcely be added, that the country was thus deprived of a regular government. The French army acted the part of an armed police in restraining the outrages of the opposite parties against each other, and in supporting the unjust and tyrannical domination of the king. In the absence of foreign troops, robbers and assassins plundered and murdered with impunity; and marauding parties, chiefly of disbanded constitutional soldiers, harassed trade, and kept the country in agitation. For any thing approaching to order or tranquillity, the country was indebted to the presence of the French troops; but this could be productive of very little advantage, since trade was nearly annihilated, and enterprise had ceased among all classes of the community. A more deplorable condition could scarcely be imagined than the state of the once powerful and wealthy kingdom of Spain, where a bloody despot wielded a terrific sceptre over poverty, disorganisation, and anarchy.

The emperor of Austria, Francis II., showed himself hostile to representative government, and laid before the Diet in August, 1824, a presidial proposition tending to support the monarchical principle in its fullest extent, and to check every interference with its complete exercise. The Germanic state gave in a cordial acceptance of his plan; he prevailed on the governments of Russia and Italy to act in conformity with his views, and he kept a jealous eye on the republics of Switzerland. The king of Prussia fulfilled his engagement of granting provincial states to the different divisions of his kingdom. The precise nature and extent of the privileges which his subjects have thus obtained, remain unknown. Good must ultimately result from even the smallest enjoyment of freedom and political importance. Similar institutions naturally take their rise in the neighbouring states, and the friend of mankind willingly believes that the period is not remote, when British freedom will be enjoyed by the whole population of Europe.

History does not perhaps record an instance of so extensive and powerful an empire as that of Turkey, which had made so little progress either in civilisation or in the arts during so long a period. The habits and dispositions of the natives, conjoined with the Mahometan religion, which has ever appeared inimical to the liberty and improvement of mankind, may account for the stationary, if not retrograde, condition of the Turks. Frequent revolutions have taken place in countries and districts subject to the Ottoman Porte, the natural consequences of great military success under a despotic and ill-regulated government; but these ephemeral changes produced no very powerful sensation at Constantinople, for the emperor knew, that the rebel could not, for any length of time, maintain his independence both against the power of the state, and the treachery of domestics, whose assistance the grand signior does not hesitate to employ.

The spirit of independence, which had of late years pervaded several European states long subjected to despotic governments, at last excited the dormant and torpid energies of the Greeks, who had, for nearly four centuries, groaned under the oppressive yoke of the Turks. In great towns this people crouched in servile submission to their tyrannical masters; but in the country, in the islands, and in the smaller towns, many gave proofs that they possessed both the resolution and talents of their ancestors. The youth, sent for their education to Italy, Germany, and Petersburg, where the empress Catherine established a college for them, returned to their native places with exalted ideas of their former eminence, inspired with the love of extricating themselves from degrading thraldom. With this view they held private meetings over the whole country and islands, settled their plans of operation, and fixed the 7th of March, 1821, for a general insurrection, which neither its discovery at Constantinople, nor the consequent flight of some of the principal leaders, prevented. The youth rushed to arms, and commenced their hostile operations in the northern provinces. The bravery of the Greeks, stimulated by an ardent love of liberty, despised danger, and achieved acts of heroism, which may be compared with some of the noblest exploits performed by their ancestors, in the brilliant periods of their history. The desire of emancipation spread so rapidly, that, in a short time, not only the continent, but also the islands and seas of Greece, became the theatre of bloody

and dreadful conflicts. They had raised the standard of revolt, depending on assistance from the emperor of Russia, in whose dominions many of them had risen to distinction. The dread of popular insubordination, with which the Austrian emperor had alarmed the Czar, disappointed their hopes, but did not depress their spirits; and although some instances of treachery, even in the field of battle, did occur, the campaign closed in a manner very favourable to the insurgents.

Prosperity, too, often produces an abatement of exertion, and an inconsiderate confidence, injurious to future success. The Greeks, elated by victory obtained in very unfavourable circumstances, and now possessed of arms and ammunition superior to the Turks, despised their inveterate oppressors, and became careless, from which frequent losses ensued, as well as from the ambition of particular commanders, who claimed superiority. They formed a system of government, in the beginning of 1822, which did not indicate great political knowledge, and a general plan of operation, a measure seemingly not well suited to the genius of that nation either in ancient or modern times. Small states seldom cordially unite in any common scheme, however judicious or beneficial it may appear to be. The Greeks, like the Scottish clans, act with the greatest energy in separate parties, when they concert their own line of conduct, and consider their character staked on its success. The different Grecian chiefs, to say nothing of their mutual jealousy, imagined themselves relieved at least in a great degree from responsibility; and felt their ardour repressed by another's authority, to which their own was subordinate: on which account they achieved nothing memorable, until that political fabric was wholly removed.

Peace with Russia, and the death of Ali Pacha, a powerful rebel in the west of Greece, who had long baffled the schemes of the grand signior for his destruction, put a strong force at the disposal of the Turkish ministers, with which they attempted to recover the Morea from the revolters, then in possession of nearly the whole of that peninsula. The patriots, by their bravery and marauding warfare, cut off a great number of the enemy, and compelled the rest to quit the country. This victory over the whole force of the Ottoman Porte induced the peasants inhabiting Pindus, Olympus, and the other heights of that chain of mountains,

to arm in defence of their liberties, and to join the standard of their countrymen. This powerful addition, augmented by 8,000 Albanians, enabled the patriots to set the forces of the enemy at defiance, and allowed them time to establish a regular system of laws, formed on the basis of the British constitution. They likewise endowed colleges and schools, and appointed five of the best informed members of the legislature to superintend the state of public education. The government now merited both the respect and obedience of the nation, settled the different plans of operation, provided the means of support and defence, and checked contention among the chiefs, which threatened destruction to the cause of liberty. The Grecian revolt obtained additional consequence by the lord high commissioner of the Ionian islands, issuing a proclamation commanding all vessels, under the Ionian flag, to respect the blockades of the Greeks. An important advantage resulting from the constitution was, that it gave confidence to the British capitalists, who entered into agreements with the patriots, and furnished them with a loan of £800,000 in 1824, and with another of £2,000,000 in the following year.

The Greeks experienced some considerable defeats, not however to portend any thing ultimately disastrous, for they soon recovered whatever they had lost, and showed their oppressors, that they had never engaged so formidable an enemy, since the taking of Constantinople. The Turks had ceased to be formidable; but the Pacha of Egypt, who had long disregarded the authority of the Sublime Porte, induced by promises which may never be fulfilled, sent reinforcements under his son, Ibrahim, to aid the cause of oppression. The Egyptian army was better appointed and more ably commanded than the Ottoman forces, yet Ibrahim gained no decisive victory over the soldiers of freedom, who cut off a number of his troops, and rendered his situation oftener than once very dangerous. Of the enormities committed first by the Turks, and afterwards retaliated by the Greeks, we forbear to give any account; but it must not be omitted, that the success of the latter at sea surpassed their victories on land, and their fleets continued greatly superior to the Ottoman navy, even after the accession of a powerful squadron from the Pacha of Egypt.

Parliament was opened by commission on 3rd February,

1825. Amidst the variety of topics alluded to in his majesty's speech, the following statement deserves particular notice for the gratifying intelligence which it conveyed, as well as for the contrast which it formed with the state of the country in the latter months of the same year. "There never was a period in the history of this country when all the great interests of the nation were at the same time in so thriving a condition, or when a feeling of content and satisfaction was more widely diffused through all classes of the British people." His majesty informed parliament, that he had taken measures for "confirming by treaties the commercial relations already subsisting between Britain and those countries of America which had established their separation from Spain." Here the sovereign was understood to refer to Columbia, Buenos Ayres, and Mexico. With the first, a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation was concluded in November following; but the ministry declined entering into any particular treaty with Buenos Ayres, from its consisting of thirteen or fourteen states not then connected, and consequently unable to answer for its constituent parts.

The first object which very particularly engaged the attention of parliament was a society in Ireland, called "the Roman Catholic Association." The priests directed the operations of this powerful combination, which extorted rents, formed resolutions, and in fact assumed the appearance of a legislative body. The violent and inflammatory harangues of the members, their unanimity in every measure, and their disregard of established authority, excited great alarm amongst protestants, and the well-affected of every denomination. Numerous petitions for its suppression were forwarded to both houses from various parts of Ireland, and it was asserted, that nine-tenths of the protestants firmly believed, that unless it were put down by the legislature, this illegal combination would be the destruction of all the inhabitants of that island, who were not within the pale of the Church of Rome. Mr. Goulburn introduced into parliament a bill to suppress all dangerous associations in that part of the empire, to guard with more efficacy against the evasion of oaths, to defeat the attempts of all who sought to maintain secret societies in defiance of law, to amend the convention act, and the act for putting down secret societies, which had only passed in 1823. This measure brought

into action nearly the whole power of the friends of "Catholic Emancipation," but the proceedings of the Catholic Association from their violence and threats admitted of no defence, and the bill was carried in the house of commons by a great majority (226 to 96), and in the house of peers without a division.

The repeal of the combination laws gave rise to numerous associations in different parts of the country, which the thoughtful and judicious had anticipated. In England, trade and the community suffered by the foolish resolutions and improper conduct of classes of various descriptions; in Scotland too, similar evils were experienced from *striking work*, as it was called, from intimidation, from tumult, and from violence. Among cotton-spinners combinations soon assumed a very threatening appearance by their assembling in large parties, preventing those who were willing to work, and attempting to injure or destroy the mills, in which they had been employed. Many persons were insulted, others wounded, and several maimed. In consequence of these outrages, the Ellenborough Act (which makes it a capital offence to wound, maim, or hurt with malicious intention) was extended to Scotland. Had this enactment taken place before the repeal of the combination laws, some of the perpetrators would have atoned for their crimes by an ignominious death.

In the latter months of the year 1825, prodigious distress began to prevail in the manufacturing districts, by thousands of people being unemployed. This stagnation of trade was by many imputed to the "liberal system" pursued by his majesty's ministers, who, it was maintained, had tamely listened to the clamours of speculative economists, and removed the protecting duties to the injury or destruction of manufactures. A general and severe depression was felt in the cotton and woollen trades; that of silk was almost annihilated.

In addition to these evils, the whole commercial interest towards the end of the year seemed panic-struck, confidence was destroyed, and numerous bankruptcies in England ensued. In one part of the island the number of banks amounted to 800, of which about 80 stopped payment. The alarming distress which resulted from these failures, and their natural consequence, general distrust, which produced an

entire discontinuance of commercial business, exceeded description. In Scotland, the calamity was scarcely felt; for no Bank experienced any difficulty, in promptly answering all demands, and bankruptcies to a great amount were few. At first, considerable variety of opinion respecting the cause of the panic existed amongst mercantile gentlemen, but afterwards, when the subject, in all its bearings, was duly considered, greater similarity of sentiment began to prevail. The immense resources of the country during the revolutionary war increased to a degree, of which the nation could not form the slightest conception, at the commencement of hostilities. After the return of peace, the productive power continued nearly the same, taxes were reduced, and government required no loans. The effect on the money from necessity invested in the funds, or deposited in banks, was a great reduction of interest, which induced the holders inconsiderately to engage in foreign loans, joint stock companies, and speculations of every kind. From the peace of 1815, foreign loans amounted to £208,790,000, of which £40,669,571 were contracted for in 1824 and 1825. During these two years, the capital of joint stock companies, formed, in many instances, on fraudulent principles, was £166,202,277. Even this enormous sum falls very far short of the truth; since there were many companies whose capital was not generally known, and probably not a small number whose names were never mentioned except in the places where they were instituted. It is impossible to form any conjecture respecting the immense sums expended in other speculations, as well as in *over-trading*, which is a natural consequence of mercantile prosperity, but had been, for a considerable time, carried to a ruinous extent. Some of these causes had been in gradual operation for several years; and the rage for speculation in cotton at Liverpool in the spring of this year (1825) brought matters to a crisis. In the course of a few weeks, that article advanced in price 200 per cent. Cotton-spinners then purchased only in very small quantities, for they could not obtain equivalent rise on the yarn; and manufactures bought scarcely any yarn, because there was no advance on cotton cloths. Want of purchasers, after a few months, compelled the cotton-merchants to sell at a reduced rate, and, in a short time, that article fell below even what it had previously been. Thus thousands were

ruined, confidence was shaken, or rather destroyed, and bankers unwilling to grant accommodation, which accelerated the destruction of these rash and injudicious speculators. Many of the bankers were merchants. and became insolvent; others transacted business greatly beyond their capitals, and likewise either stopped or suspended payment. Alarm thus excited occasioned a run upon the banks over the greater part of the kingdom, and it is impossible to conjecture, to what amount money was withdrawn to be hoarded up, from suspicion of its being insecure. Besides extravagant speculation, the ministry attributed the panic and commercial distress to the country banks in England issuing small notes, and, therefore, on the meeting of parliament, February 1826, carried a bill prohibiting the circulation of notes under £5. Certain modifications were introduced to satisfy the commercial interest, which did not generally approve of the measure, and remonstrances by petition were forwarded from every part of Scotland to both houses of parliament, lest the effects of the bill should be extended to that part of the island, either then, or at any future period. The public looked forward with great anxiety in expectation of something effectual being accomplished by parliament to remove commercial embarrassment, and to provide for the wants of the sufferers. Nor would the wisdom of the legislature have frustrated that reasonable anticipation, had not the bank of England, at the recommendation of the ministry, agreed to advance £3,000,000, which had a wonderful effect in the restoration of confidence, and an immediate revival of trade was generally expected.

The parliament was dissolved on the 2nd of June, and a new one immediately elected, in which few changes and none of any consideration were made. The new parliament assembled on the 14th of November, and passed a bill of indemnity for the opening of the ports to foreign corn, an act taken upon themselves by the ministers during the recess under an alarming apprehension of the failure of the harvest. —The only other question of importance during the session regarded the foreign policy of the country as respected Portugal.

The king of Portugal and titular emperor of Brazil John VI. died at Lisbon on the 10th of March, 1826, and his death made it necessary for his eldest son Don Pedro, who

represented his father as sovereign of Brazil, to make an election between his new kingdom or that of his ancestors—the constitution of Brazil having provided, when its independance was recognized, that the two crowns should never be united on the same head. Don Pedro preferred his South American empire, and resigned his claim to Portugal in favour of his eldest daughter Donna Maria de Gloria, then an infant. It was also made a condition, that on her coming of age she should be married to her uncle Don Miguel; and in the mean time Portugal was governed by a regency, at the head of which was her aunt, the sister of Don Pedro. These arrangements were not satisfactory to a considerable party, with Don Miguel at their head, and supported by Spain. The assistance given by the latter enabled the disaffected to have recourse to arms, and threatened the existence of the regency, when the British cabinet interfered; a powerful armament was equipped and sent with great dispatch to Lisbon, where its appearance put a stop to Spanish interference in the affairs of Portugal. The king of Spain was obliged to recal his troops, and disavow his officers; and the British force being stationed in the capital and chief fortresses to preserve tranquillity, the regency was enabled to direct its whole power against the insurgents, and to suppress them for the time with but little difficulty.

In the East Indies, the inhabitants of Ava, encouraged by their successes in Pegu and Siam, provoked hostilities with British power in 1824. The nature of the country, and unhealthiness of the climate, with an utter ignorance of the people they had to encounter, and the localities in which the war was to be carried on, occasioned to the English armies much unnecessary delay and distressing loss of life. Notwithstanding the contemptible opposition of an undisciplined and almost unarmed mob, the British were unable to make any serious impression upon the Burman state for nearly two years, when their approach to the capital alarmed the king of Ava, and a treaty of peace, in which he made large concessions of territory and agreed to pay a partial indemnification of the expense of the war, was signed at Yandaboo, in the February of this year. In the same year, the fortress of Bhurtpore, which had on a former occasion successfully resisted the British arms, fell beneath more deliberate and better organised operations under Lord Combermere.

The interposition of British authority had been rendered necessary by the usurpation of the principality by Durjun Sal, the uncle of the young raja, who was a minor; and by his contumacious disregard of the remonstrances of the British government, inspired by his fancied security in an impregnable citadel. The fall of Bhurtpore convinced him, and the natives of India, of his error, and the young raja was re-seated on the musnud of his ancestors after the capture of the fortress by storm.

The remaining years of the reign of George the IV. were signalized by several occurrences of an interesting and important, although principally of a domestic, character; some of them were of a private nature, although not without a claim upon the sympathy of the public; but others were of vital importance, and the effects which they may produce upon the happiness and prosperity of Great Britain have yet to be developed.

In the beginning of 1827, died his Highness the Duke of York, the next brother of the king, and heir presumptive to the throne. In early life he had commanded the British forces in the Netherlands, as has been related, and he subsequently held for above thirty years the office of commander-in-chief. In this capacity his sedulous attention to business, his zealous care of the best interest of the soldiery, and his general accessibility and impartiality, entitled him to the highest approbation of the country, and contributed in no mean degree to the military wreath which her arms had won in the concluding and most glorious years of the war with France. The Duke died on the 8th January, 1827, and was succeeded in his high post by the Duke of Wellington.

Parliament opened on the 8th of February, and stormy debates occupied it for some weeks on the important subjects of the catholic question and the corn laws. The former was totally lost, being negatived in the house of commons by a majority of 276 to 272, and its advocates not venturing to bring it forward in the house of lords. A bill for imposing a scale of duties on foreign corn, according to the price of domestic produce, passed the house of commons; but this and other measures were suspended by the illness of the Premier. The earl of Liverpool was seized with a paralytic affection, which prevented his taking part in public business, and terminated his life in the course of the following year.

Mr. Canning, the leader of the ministerial body, was now called to the head of affairs; but as many of his colleagues differed from him on several questions of magnitude, they declined co-operating with him in the administration. The lord chanceller, (Lord Eldon), the duke of Wellington, the earl of Westmoreland, lord Bathurst, Mr. Peel, and other Tory members of the cabinet resigned, and were succeeded by lord Lyndhurst as chancellor, the marquis of Anglesea as master-general of the ordnance, Mr. Robinson (created viscount Goderich) as secretary of state for the colonies, and others. As, however, their support was not a sufficient counterpoise to the influence and talent which the new minister had to encounter, he was forced to form a coalition with the Whig party, one of the leaders of which, the marquis of Lansdowne, was made shortly afterwards secretary of state.

Notwithstanding this coalition, however, the ministry remained too weak to carry any great public question in the house of lords, and possessed but a very precarious influence in that of the commons. Neither was the feeling of the public in their favour; as, although many were acknowledged to be men of talents, yet they were looked upon as more speculative than practical, and as the advocates of doctrines of extreme liberality in policy and in commerce, that were, to say the least, questionable, and were generally held to be dangerous. The conduct of Mr. Canning also, in retaining power at the price of coalescing with men whom he had from his youth upwards vehemently opposed, injured his character in general estimation, and shook the confidence of all in his political integrity. That he felt this keenly, was but too evident; and his health, which had been for some time delicate, rapidly declined: change of air and medical treatment proved unavailing, and he died on the 8th of August, having been prime minister for only four months. On his death, lord Goderich took the reins of government as first lord of the treasury, and the Duke of Wellington resumed his place as commander-in-chief. There were few changes in the administration; but originally composed of heterogeneous materials, and no longer held together by the talents of a Canning, the members soon found themselves unable to bear the burthen of the state, and shrunk from the task. At the end of the year another change of ministry took place, effected and supported by the Tory interest, with the

Duke of Wellington as premier, and Mr. Peel leader in the house of commons.

The affairs of Greece, which had declined to the verge of ruin,—the whole of the country, with the exception of some mountain fastnesses, and the citadels of Corinth and Napoli, being in the possession of the Egyptian armies,—were unexpectedly retrieved, by the determination of Britain, France, and Russia, to put a stop to the war. In consequence of this resolution, terms were proposed to the Ottoman emperor, securing to him the nominal supremacy over Greece, and an annual tribute on condition of the Greeks being independent in all other respects. The sultan having rejected the proposal, the fleets of the three powers in the Mediterranean were ordered to prevent the passage of troops and arms by sea, and the squadrons having joined, entered on the 18th of October the bay of Navarino, where the vessels of Ibrahim Pasha lay at anchor. An engagement ensued, which ended in the total destruction of the Turkish and Egyptian fleet. This occurrence was followed by the departure of the ambassadors of the allied powers from Constantinople, although no actual declaration of war took place; it being no part of the policy of France or Great Britain to afford Russia an opportunity of aggrandising herself at the expense of Turkey.

Although the fleet had been destroyed, the armies of the Pasha continued in possession of the Morea, and the Greeks were unable to cope with their enemies in the field. In furtherance of the object of their emancipation, therefore, a military force was dispatched from France in the following year, the presence of which arrested finally that course of barbarian warfare in which both the combatants had so long been engaged. The Pasha of Egypt, seeing the hopelessness of a contest with the principal powers of Europe, consented to withdraw his force, and after some hesitation the Turkish court was compelled to consent to arrangements which restored virtual independance to the Greeks. They have therefore now an opportunity of becoming again a prosperous and enlightened nation; although such are the general ignorance and instability of both chiefs and people, and such the utter want of good government, that a long period must elapse before Greece can be entitled to a place amongst the civilised states of the western world.

In Portugal, although open insurrection was ended, yet the seeds of discontent were too deep to be easily eradicated. The attempts to introduce a representative constitution, sanctioned by the late king, was premature, and the higher and lower orders of the people were equally opposed to the innovation. The regent was a woman of delicate health and weak mind, and her ministry were disunited, and in some instances unfaithful. The only security against the renewal of disturbance, therefore, was the presence of the British troops; and as they would be withdrawn as soon as all danger on the side of Spain was at an end, there was little prospect of public tranquillity being long maintained.

In the hope therefore of giving greater consistency to the government, by conciliating a powerful party, Don Pedro, assuming to himself the character of king of Portugal, nominated as his lieutenant Don Miguel, with full and sovereign powers, conformably with the constitutional charter.

Don Miguel accordingly returned to Portugal from Vienna, whither he had retired after the late disturbances, and where he pledged himself by oath to administer the government according to the spirit of his appointment, and the principles of the constitution. This oath he repeated shortly after his return, but without any intention of adhering to its purport. The enemies of the constitution soon made their appearance again, with augmented confidence: the advocates of freedom were removed from their posts, military or civil, and in the course of a few months Don Miguel was persuaded to nominate himself king of Portugal, in his own right, and rule as an absolute monarch.

The tender age of the young queen, the distance of Don Pedro, and his own embarrassments, rendered these measures secure, and all persons in Portugal adverse to the new sovereign were put to death or incarcerated. The European powers, acting on the principle of non-interference with the internal organisation of other states, contented themselves with refusing to recognise Don Miguel, and withdrawing their ambassadors from Lisbon.

The domestic attention of Great Britain, during the year 1828, was chiefly directed to the fearful state of Ireland, in which the Catholic association successfully resisted the attempts of the government for its suppression, and aggravated the real sufferings of the people with imaginary wrongs:

horrible disorders ensued, and many acts of atrocity were perpetrated by the enraged peasantry upon the persons of their landlords and magistrates. An attempt was made in Parliament to allay these commotions by removing the pretext for them, and a bill for removing the Catholic disabilities was again introduced and carried in the House of Commons by a small majority. It met, however, with its usual fate in the house of lords, and was there rejected, to the exasperation of the Irish Catholics, but to the general satisfaction of the English nation, amongst whom the concession of political privileges to Roman Catholics was always a highly unpopular measure. In Ireland a mode of expressing the feeling arising from the occurrence, was resorted to, harmless in itself, but pregnant with important consequences. Mr. O'Connell, an able but violent demagogue, the oracle of the discontented Catholics, which persuasion he professed, was elected member of parliament for the county of Clare; it being argued that no legal objection prevailed to the election of a Catholic, whatever question might arise as to the practicability of his occupying a seat in the house of commons, without taking the usual oaths. However this might be, it was evident that a crisis was at hand, and the removal of the disabilities must be conceded, or the malcontents be put down by force, with the certainty of involving Ireland in a sanguinary civil war. The ministers shrunk from the alternative, and at the expense of their own consistency, and in opposition to the sense of the nation, determined to open parliament and the highest offices of the state to Catholic ambition.

Accordingly, in the session of 1829, a bill was introduced into the commons by Mr. Peel, entitled the Catholic Relief Bill, by which persons, being Roman Catholic, were allowed to become members of parliament, on taking an oath, professing allegiance to the king, and submission to the laws, in place of the oath of allegiance, supremacy and abjuration, by which the authority of the Pope in church government was disclaimed. A few of the highest civil and ecclesiastical offices were also barred against Catholics, and Catholics ecclesiastics were declared ineligible as members of parliament. The bill was vigorously opposed, and petitions against it presented from all parts of the united kingdom; it was nevertheless carried rapidly through the house, and passed by a majority of 320 to 142 on the 30th of March. In the house of lords it was

still more strenuously resisted, and the debate on the first reading occupied three days. It was finally triumphant, however, and passed the lords on the 10th of April by a majority of 213 to 109. On the 13th of April it received the royal assent. Thus terminating a struggle which had been carried on for half a century, and overturning one of the great principles on which the constitution of the country had reposed since the days of the revolution.

The remainder of this session, and the commencement of the next, were chiefly occupied with plans for reducing the expenditure of the government, for giving support and encouragement to commerce and manufactures, which were in a depressed condition, and for reforming and equalizing the state of the national representation by withdrawing the elective franchise from close boroughs, and extending it to towns and counties. Before, however, any arrangements for these important objects could be matured, the deliberations of parliament were interrupted by the demise of the king.

The last indisposition of the king commenced early in April, and by the end of May was so severe, as to preclude his majesty's affixing the sign manual to public documents. It continued to run its course rapidly, and to manifest symptoms of a total decay of the constitution.

The king had long suffered from attacks of gout and dropsy, and ossification of the heart had taken place. The fatal termination was hastened by the rupture of a blood-vessel during a violent fit of coughing. George the IV. breathed his last on the 26th of June, 1830, at the age of 68, having reigned as king eleven years, and as regent eight.

The period of the regency was the brightest portion of this reign :—the determination of the prince to discard his former friends and companions, when he found them unwilling or unable to combine cordially for the public good, and his continued trust in his father's ministers, actively and ably engaged in the Spanish war, reflected the highest credit on his judgment and public principle. He was rewarded for it by the success which crowned the measures of his administration ; and a few monarchs could have felt such sensations as must have fallen to his lot, when he saw Louis the XVIII. set sail from the English coast to resume the throne of his ancestors, or when he played the royal host to the imperial and gallant band who gratified their feelings by a

personal visit to that prince and people, whose example and aid had secured them glory and independence.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

WILLIAM IV.

A. D. 1830—1837.

THE accession of William IV. to the throne, was hailed with a general enthusiasm. His career had hitherto been popular. Introduced at an early period of life into the navy, he had risen step by step from the station of midshipman, to the highest post in the admiralty. In the discharge of his duties his behaviour had been marked by a frankness, condescension, and affability, which won all hearts, and justly endeared him to every member of the profession. The simplicity of his habits and manners, divested of all ostentation, and even tenor of the domestic life which he had led with his consort Adelaide, added to his maturity of years and experience in life, all contributed to interest the public in his favour, and incline them to draw a happy omen from his accession.

While favourable expectations were thus formed in England, the aspect of France foreboded the approach of some great political convulsion.

Inroads had been made in the French constitution; the liberty of the press had been invaded; the system of representation previously existing, had been cancelled; and a new system of election had been adopted; the effect of which was to restrict the powers of the chamber of deputies, and render it subservient to the royal will.

A French paper, the *Moniteur*, of Monday the 26th of July, gave the Parisians their first intimation of the projected new government. The agitation of the public immediately became manifest, and although no outward demonstrations of turbulence were displayed during the day, yet as evening advanced and the working classes were liberated from employment, mobs of people intent upon mischief, began to assemble in different parts of the capital. The public excitement was kept on the increase by newspaper declamation, the editors inveighing in unmeasured terms against the invasion of the national rights, and the restrictions laid upon the liberty of the press, and

boldly declaring that an end was put to legal government, and that a government of force had usurped its place.

On the ensuing morning, the 27th, the *gens d'armerie*, who had received orders to destroy all the printing presses of the refractory journalists, commenced their work of demolition. These ill-judged and arbitrary decrees, as an unavoidable consequence, would throw out of employment thirty thousand persons connected with printing. Such was the effect; and this immense body joining the populace, increased the general ferment; while the amount of their numbers made a formidable addition to the strength of the insurrectionary party. In this state of affairs business of every kind experienced a stagnation, confidence no longer existed, the funds fell 7 per cent. and the Bank refused to discount bills.

The garrison of Paris was committed to the charge of Marshall Marmont, but the career of the populace, whose numbers had increased to seventy or eighty thousand, had been every where marked with such success, that he declared Paris to be in a state of siege; and added, that the increasing tumult was no longer a riot, but the outbreak of a revolution. This civil war, confined to the limits of one great metropolis, was an event of singular occurrence; the revolution commenced and terminated in three days; and a new dynasty had been actually formed, before some of the distant parts of the kingdom had received intelligence of the first outbreak.

At the commencement of the revolution, a novel mode of warfare was adopted by the populace; the streets were barricadoed with waggons, carts and other vehicles; the paving stones were torn up, and converted into missiles; the railings were used as weapons of offence; and the soldiery were assailed from the windows and roofs of the houses. Ammunition and arms were afterwards obtained in abundance; an unanimity prevailed among the greater portion of the Parisian population; and by the afternoon of the 29th, they had full possession of the capital.

The number of persons who were killed and wounded on this memorable occasion, was certainly considerable; but the accounts were exaggerated, the estimation being made at several thousands. The killed and wounded of the guards and gens-d'armerie do not appear to have exceeded 370. On the assembling of the deputies, they adopted the resolution of excluding from the throne not only Charles the Tenth but the whole

family of the Bourbons; and offering the crown to the Duke of Orleans, Louis Philippe. The Duke arrived in Paris on the 30th of July; and in a most flattering proclamation, announced his acceptance of the vacant throne. Charles the Tenth repairing to Cherbourg, sailed for England; he proceeded thence to Edinburgh, and took up his abode in the ancient palace of Holyrood House.

The successful issue of this revolution produced its effects in other states of Europe, in which it excited a spirit of imitation. After the downfall of Bonaparte, Belgium had been united to Holland; but the inhabitants of the two nations differed widely in many essentials; jealousy and distrust soon arose between them; and the Belgians were anxious to effect their independence. Following the example set by the Parisians, the inhabitants of Brussels rose in insurrection; and having succeeded in annulling the government, effected their project of a separation from Holland. On the convocation of a national congress, they proclaimed the independence of the Netherlands; and excluding from the throne the house of Orange, proceeded to the election of a new king. But this was an object which they did not effect without much difficulty. The Duke of Leuchtenberg was first proposed, but as France discountenanced his election, the crown was offered to the Duke of Nemours, the second son of the king of France. The Duke, however, objecting to their choice, their election was at length fixed upon Prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg, who after some protracted stipulations, accepted the offer.

The revolutionary spirit spread like an infection from state to state. Poland rose in arms against the Russian dominion, and after having forcibly expelled the garrison, appointed for herself a provisional government; a fruitless attempt was made by the constitutional party to effect a revolution in Spain; insurrections broke out in some of the small German states; the peace of Saxony was disturbed, and Leipzic and Dresden, were the scenes of riot; tumults arose in Hesse Cassell, and in Hamburgh; whilst Switzerland, weary of her wonted tranquillity, objected to the impost of certain taxes, and its capital was disturbed by an insurrectionary movement.

This desire for change was experienced even in South America; differences arose between the legislative body of Don Pedro, and the Emperor was obliged to abdicate in favour of his son.

Parliamentary reform, which for years before had been chiefly supported by obscure persons, was now countenanced by a large proportion of the rank, influence, and property of Great Britain. The successful issue of the Catholic bill had raised expectations that this question would be met, and dealt with in the same spirit, and it was generally supposed that the Duke of Wellington would bring forward some measure at least for a moderate reform. Parliament opened on the 2nd of November, but the subject of reform was altogether omitted in the king's speech. In the debate on the address, the Duke of Wellington, in reply to what had fallen from Earl Grey, took occasion to observe, that he had never read or heard of any measure of Parliamentary reform which could satisfy his mind, that the representation could be improved; and that under such circumstances he was not only unprepared to bring forward any measure of this nature, but should feel it his duty to resist any such measure when proposed by others.

This firm and manly declaration dashed at once the hopes of the reformers, and filled all classes of that party with a bitter hostility against the Duke. In the Commons, Lord Althorpe took occasion to observe, that "he felt the country to be in a most serious situation, requiring great skill on the part of those to whom its prosperity was entrusted, and that it was because he did feel that great skill was necessary, he also felt himself bound to say, that his Majesty's present ministers were not, in his mind, fit and equal to it."

The Duke's party was now much weakened; the old and staunch tories, whom he had alienated by his concessions to the Catholics, had not yet been conciliated, and the manifestations given of an united opposition, were most formidable.

The embarrassment experienced by ministry, was still farther augmented by an untoward occurrence which exposed them to ridicule, and obliged them afterwards to explain their conduct to Parliament.

The king had accepted an invitation to dine at Guildhall upon Lord Mayor's day, (the 9th of November.) Preparations on a costly and extensive scale had been made for his reception, and public expectation was already at its height, when the Lord Mayor received a note from the home secretary, late on the evening of the 7th of November, that his

Majesty, by advice of his ministers, had determined to postpone his promised visit. Ministers were called on for an explanation, when it appeared that a note had been received from some person not officially connected, expressing doubts of the Duke's favourable reception. Mr. Key, the Lord Mayor elect, wrote to the Duke upon this subject, and advised him to come well armed and guarded. Opponents of ministers could find in all this a fitting subject for the exercise of their satire, and the populace universally regarded the affair with derision. Ministers found themselves in this awkward position, when the question for a settlement of the civil list was brought forward. Having suffered a defeat upon this question by a majority of twenty-nine, they immediately resigned their offices.

His Majesty now called to office the principal leaders of the whig party, combined with whom, there were also nominated some of the disciples of the late Mr. Canning.

Under the new arrangement Earl Grey became first lord of the treasury; Mr. Brougham, lord chancellor; Lord Althorpe, chancellor of the exchequer; Lord Melbourne, home secretary; Lord Palmerston, secretary for foreign affairs; Lord Goderich, colonial secretary; Sir James Graham, first lord of the admiralty; Mr. Denman, attorney general; Lord Hill, commander-in-chief; Lord John Russell, paymaster of the forces; and the Duke of Richmond, postmaster general.

On coming into office, the ministry, through their organ, Lord Grey, (who explained his views in the House of Lords immediately after his appointment,) held themselves engaged to a retrenchment of expenditure, to a reform in the House of Commons, and to a non-interference with the arrangements of foreign states.

Towards the close of the year some mysterious, and as it was suspected, political agency, was in action, its object apparently to excite terror, and create a supposition in the public mind, that the country was in a state of disaffection. The allusion is made to those repeated acts of incendiarism, which consisted in the setting fire to ricks, and other produce of the farm-yard. The perpetrators of these acts seemed to calculate so confidently on their dexterity in eluding detection, that they frequently prefaced the intended destruction, by sending a notice of their demoniac intentions, in the shape of a letter; and signed with the fictitious name of

Swing. Some offences of this nature, were clearly traced to a few labouring men, who had been incited thereto, either by mischief or revenge; but the agents of agitation, who pursued their schemes on an extensive and systematic scale, escaped detection.

Ministers were now busied in the construction of their plans for Parliamentary reform, and meetings were held in every part of the country, for the purpose of getting up petitions in favour of that measure. Numerous clubs were also forming under the title of Political Unions, the members of which where chiefly composed of tradesmen and mechanics. The Birmingham union, from its numbers and influence, was the most conspicuous. The undisguised object of these societies, was to show the government and the country, that they were prepared by numerical force, to insist on such changes in the representation as should give a preponderance to the democratic side.

Although Parliament met on the 3rd of February, and the measure for reform had been already framed, it was not introduced into the Commons until the 1st of March. Lord John Russell, to whom it had been entrusted, declared in his speech before the House, that his Majesty's ministers had no desire of "complying with any violent and extravagant demands, but that their object was to frame a measure with which every reasonable man would be satisfied."

The bill was brought in on the 14th, and read a first time; but its progress was suspended, after a lengthened discussion, by a dissolution of Parliament. The election which ensued, turned out so favourably for ministers, that the reform bill under numerous alterations, ran through its stages in the House of Commons, and was finally passed by a majority of 109, on the 21st of September. The bill was next day brought up to the House of Lords, where it was read for the first time, but was thrown out on the second reading, by a majority of 41, on the 8th of October. Ministers, although defeated, did not resign, a motion having been made in the House of Commons by Lord Ebrington, the object of which was to prevent them from so doing. The motion was carried by the large majority of 131. The liberal party now became more than ever clamorous for reform; and a system of agitation was kept in action, which occasioned much alarm to the peaceable and well affected.

At Derby, the mob attacked the houses of individuals, broke open one of the jails, and committed other excesses. At Nottingham, the rabble attacked the castle, which they set on fire, and proceeded to other outrages, which were only repressed by the aid of the military.*

But in Bristol was exhibited a scene of tumult, which has not been paralleled since the days of Gordon. During the debates in the House of Commons on the question of reform, no one had taken a more prominent part on the side of opposition, than Sir Charles Wetherall. He was the recorder for Bristol, and in that capacity proceeded thither on the 29th of October, for the discharge of his official functions. He was received, according to custom, at a short distance from the city, by the Mayor and part of the Corporation, but a dense body of rabble lined the road, and accompanied the cavalcade to the Guildhall, hissing and groaning as they proceeded, and some few stones were also thrown. From the Guildhall, the cavalcade pursued its course to the Mansion-house, a spacious building in the Queen-square, where it was customary for them to dine.

Stones in great numbers were now thrown by the mob; the Mansion-house windows were broken; and other acts of violence were committed; when the Mayor, Mr. Pinney, made his appearance. Addressing the multitude, he endeavoured to prevail upon them to disperse quietly. His advice being disregarded, the riot act was read; but this, so far from effecting its object, excited the populace to a wilder frenzy; who, assailing the constables, disarmed, and put them to flight. The attack then commenced upon the Mansion-house. It was entered without opposition, the furniture was broken, and a search was made for Sir Charles Wetherall. Had not Sir Charles, as well as the magistrates effected their escape by the back of the building, they would, in all human probability, have been murdered.

The mischief, however, was prevented from extending until the ensuing morning of Sunday; when the rabble, whose numbers had considerably increased, again made their appearance. At this time the troops were at their barracks. The Mansion-house was re-entered, a general pillage ensued and a plentiful stock of wines and spirits having been discovered, the mob soon became intoxicated. A troop of cavalry, the 14th, was now called out; but their commander, Colonel

Brereton, failing to act with the necessary promptitude, and pursuing a weak and temporizing line of conduct with the mob, the latter became more emboldened, and sallying forth with sledge hammers, repaired to the Bridewell, the gates of which they battered in; and liberating the prisoners, set fire to the building.

This occurred about two o'clock on the Sunday, when measures not being adopted to check further violence, the lowest purlieus of the city sent forth their inhabitants, all bent upon devastation and plunder. The new gaol, an extensive building of modern construction, was the next object of capture. It was soon entered, the prisoners set free, and the building itself committed to the flames. The mob proceeded to the Bishop's-palace, in College-green; but here their proceedings were for a time arrested by a party of the military who had been summoned to the spot from Queen's-square. During the absence of the military, the populace remaining in the square again entered the Mansion-house, and large heaps of straw having been laid on the floors and then ignited, the flames spread rapidly from floor to floor till the whole building was enveloped.

The party of military, consisting only of a single troop of the guards, hastened back to the square, and during their absence from College-green, the episcopal palace was again attempted. Large parties of the populace were now seen hurrying through the streets, transporting, in open defiance, the articles of the furniture which they had purloined from the palace. The mob in the square, reinforced by parties from the palace, became more reckless in proportion as the panic through the city spread more extensively. The houses adjoining the Mansion-house were entered one by one, portable articles of any value stolen, the furniture either broken, or thrown into the square, and the buildings then set on fire. Many of the mob had entered the houses before the fire had taken effect, and were seated at the tables in a state of intoxication, though still carousing upon the wines and spirits which they had purloined, when the flames gained so rapidly upon them, that escape by the stairs became impracticable, and they were either burnt to death, or threw themselves out of the windows.

The Queen's-square is a large area, somewhat resembling Lincoln's-Inn-fields, and not much inferior in point of size.

The flames soon extended from the Mansion-house on one end, to the Custom-house nearly at the other. The latter, a spacious building, was soon consumed; and the Excise-office was also added to the ruins. It was now midnight; one side of the square was already in flames, and the conflagration was commencing on the side adjacent. House after house was enveloped in flames, and the furniture, consisting of chairs, tables, mirrors, &c., was scattered promiscuously in the area of the square, in which the mob, maddened with liquor were keeping up their orgies; some seated at the tables with their cheer before them; others dancing about with the most frantic gestures, amidst a din of discordance; and a deep red glare of illumination, which harmonized terrifically with the awful character of the riot. By the morning, both sides of the square, as well as many houses attached at the back in King-street, and Prince's-street, amounting altogether to upwards of forty, were a heap of smouldering ruins; and the other sides of the square was about to share the same fate, when the magistrates and citizens, having in some degree recovered from their panic, and reinforcements of troops having arrived, the riot was at length quelled; and by Tuesday, the 1st of November, the rabble had slunk to their obscure quarters, and order was restored.

The constabulary force, which was now under organization, to the number of two or three thousand, visited every part of the city, and were busily engaged in recovering the stolen property, and in apprehending the suspicious. The property regained was deposited either in the area of the Exchange, or in some of the churches, and presented the appearance of articles in a bazar.

Those who died from intoxication or inability to escape from the flames, were very numerous. Some were slain by the military, and the hospitals were filled with the wounded. The loss of property was estimated at nearly half a million.

On the 3rd of December, a special commission was issued for the trial of the rioters. Davis, a carrier, in a large way of business; Clarke, a sawyer; and Kerneguy, an Irish labourer, having taken a prominent part in the riot, were executed for treason, and a vast number of others were transported. Colonel Brereton, the officer in command, anticipating the decision of a court martial, in a fit of despondency, committed suicide.

At the latter end of October, 1831, the cholera morbus, a

pestilential, and most fatal disease; said to have originated at Jessore, in Bengal; (where in the space of a few weeks it carried off no less than 10,000 individuals,) having traversed Asia, and Europe, now first made its appearance in England, visiting Sunderland at its onset, and gradually extending itself over the whole country. The mortality was every where great; and the metropolis would have presented a scene of desolation surpassing that during the great plague, had it not enjoyed the superior advantage of large open streets, a free circulation of air, and an absence from all uncleanliness. The symptoms of the disease were first characterized by violent vomitings, and a no less violent action of the bowels. Spasmodic contractions in the fingers and toes then ensued, which were gradually extended over the whole body. The pulse sank considerably, the skin became cold, and the members and trunk assumed an unnatural colour, either that of lead or blue, or purple black, depending much upon the patient's complexion. The pulse by degrees became imperceptible, the voice sank to a whisper, and death frequently took place within twelve or eighteen hours after the first decisive attack.

Parliament reassembled on the 6th of December, 1831, and a new reform bill was brought forward, resembling the first in its principal provisions. It passed through the Commons with a large majority, on the 23rd of March ensuing. While the bill was passing through the lower house, the reformers had been constantly urging ministers to procure a creation of new pears, in order to ensure the success of the measure in the House of Lords. Reports prevailed that powers to this effect had been already granted to ministers, nevertheless Lord Grey made a trial of the bill without the creation of a single peer. Lord Wharncliffe, and several others, who had all along opposed the measure, were now induced to vote for the second reading, under the supposition that a creation of peers would otherwise take place. The bill therefore went through a second reading, but with a majority of nine only. A majority so inconsiderable, convinced ministers that their strength in a committee would be wholly inefficient, and having been defeated on a motion of amendment by Lord Lyndhurst, relative to the disfranchisement clause, Earl Grey repaired to the king, and intimated to his Majesty, that unless he was empowered to create new peers, he must tender his resignation. The king declined an immediate decision, but in

the course of the day informed the premier that he accepted his resignation, in preference to the other alternative. Ministers in consequence immediately resigned.

The news of this defeat occasioned great excitement; meetings were convened among the reformers; various resolutions were entered into, and the Commons were petitioned to refuse the supplies. This excitement was farther increased, when intelligence was spread, that the duty of forming a new administration had been confided to the care of the Duke of Wellington. Several days of uncertainty elapsed, during which agitation was at its height over the whole metropolis. The Duke, however, had such insurmountable obstacles to encounter, that all his efforts were rendered unavailing; and the king was reduced to one only alternative, that of recalling his former advisers.

The reform bill, in consequence, progressed rapidly, and the creation of peers was obviated by a sort of compromise on the part of the tory Lords, a large body of whom made a temporary secession.

On the 7th of June, 1832, the English bill received the royal assent; those for Scotland and Ireland, were similarly confirmed a short time afterwards.

Our limits will allow us to give only a faint outline of this memorable bill. It enacted that several of the boroughs should be wholly disfranchised; that others should lose only one member each; that some towns which previously had not been represented, were to send members to Parliament; that an addition of members was to be made to several of the English counties; and in Scotland, that the number of members should be considerably increased. An addition of members was also to be made to the metropolis. The county votes were to be extended to leaseholders of lands or tenements worth ten pounds a year, and the borough votes to the renters of houses; in the latter case, the qualification being a ten pound rent.

In the estimation of the liberal party, the provisions of this bill were not framed to gratify the "extravagant demands" which Lord John Russell had alluded to in his speech; the tories, on the other hand, were seized with dismay, and could only regard such changes as dangerous inroads upon the constitution. How far this measure was dictated by wisdom, time alone must determine. Its effects as yet have not been fully developed.

A powerful interest now existed in regard to the affairs of Spain and Portugal. It Spain, Ferdinand VII. had annulled the Salic Law (a law which excluded females from the throne) in order that his daughter might succeed to the crown. Don Carlos, the king's brother, who would have been next heir under the old law, opposed this proceeding, and was supported by a strong party, who expressed their opinion that, as a decree of the cortes had confirmed the Salic law, it could not be rescinded by the king. In an assembly, however, of the old cortes, the infanta's succession was publicly confirmed. Ferdinand's health had for a long time been declining; and on the 29th of September, 1833, a fit of apoplexy terminated his life.

On the 24th of October, the Infanta, under the sanction of the Queen Regent, was proclaimed Queen in Madrid; and this event was immediately succeeded by a general insurrection of the partisans of Don Carlos. Insurrectionary movements had previously taken place in the early part of October, which were principally supported by the priesthood and the royalist volunteers. General Castagnos opposed the insurgents; but with a force so inadequate that he was obliged to retreat to Tolosa. Vittoria, imitating the example of Bilboa, and other places, declared also for Don Carlos; and the insurgents attacking Tolosa itself, forced Castagnos to fall back to St. Sebastian. The revolters obtained other successes in the Basque provinces and Navarre.

But on the 9th of November, General Saarsfield, viceroy of Navarre, having succeeded in collecting an army, marched against the insurgents. The latter, who had suffered several defeats in skirmishes with Castagnos, had now stationed their whole force in the neighbourhood of Vittoria. They were defeated; and by the end of December, the insurrection was so far quelled, that its scene was confined to the mountains of Navarre.

In Portugal, Don Pedro, at the head of his troops, which were chiefly composed of French and British volunteers, had fixed himself at Oporto, as Regent for his daughter. To Solignac, a French general, he had assigned the chief command; though Saldanha and Villa Flor, now Duke of Terceira, were still retained in his service. The operations of the opponents were confined to Oporto; Don Pedro occupying the city and the works before it on the right bank of the Douro; while Miguel, with a battery, was stationed upon the left.

A long and obstinate struggle was maintained by the belligerents; but Don Pedro having refitted his fleet, determined to adopt another system. An adequate force was to be left in Oporto, while a large body of troops was to be placed on board the fleet, and landed at Algarves, a southern province. The expedition sailed from Oporto on the 21st of June; and its successes were so signal, that the speedy possession of the whole province of Algarves was regarded as certain.

On the 2nd of July, the fleet, cammanded by Admiral Napier, which consisted of three frigates, a corvette, a brig and a small schooner, fell in with the fleet of Don Miguel.; which consisted of two ships of the line, two frigates, three corvettes, and two brigs. Miguel was defeated, and his fleet almost annihilated.

The province of Algarves having been regained, the Duke of Terceira hastened towards Lisbon; and on the 23rd of July defeated the Miguelite commander Jordao, on the left bank of the Tagus. News of this event being conveyed to Lisbon, its commander, the Duke of Cadaval, evacuated in the night, and the capital was soon left defenceless. The citizens assembled, and proclaimed Donna Maria Queen; on which Terceira entered with his troops, and took command of the city. On receipt of this intelligence, Don Pedro sailed from Oporto, to assume the government in behalf of his daughter; whose title of queen was now acknowledged both by England and France. The young Queen, after having paid a visit to England, arrived in Lisbon; where she was received with the most flattering enthusiasm.

The sovereignty of Greece, which had been offered to Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, and declined by him, was accepted by Prince Otho of Bavaria; who, bringing with him a small body of troops, landed in the beginning of the year.

The disturbed state of Ireland now forced itself on the attention of Parliament; and a bill for the suppression of disturbances in Ireland, or as it was called, the Irish Coercion Bill, was introduced into the House of Lords by Earl Grey. An association had been formed in Ireland, under the title of the Irish Volunteers; the real object of which was, the repeal of the union. Its organization was to extend over the whole country. The disturbers of the public safety proceeded not only against tithes, but also prescribed the terms upon which land should be let; and those who were disobedient to their

orders, were liable either to have their property destroyed, or to be maltreated, if not murdered. They themselves appointed the employers and the employed. As Lord Grey observed "They enforce their commands by acts of cruelty and outrage —by spoliation—murder—attacks on houses in the dead of night—by dragging the inmates from their beds, and so maltreating them that death often ensued. These persons assembled by signals—made concerted movements—watched the route of the military, and by information received, so avoided them, that they could not be put down by the army." The aggregate number of crimes of every description during the year, was stated to have amounted to upwards of nine thousand: of which one hundred and seventy-two were homicides. The bill in its enactments was necessarily severe; but it was read for the third time in the Commons on the 29th of March, with a majority of 345 to 86.

In passing these measures, government ackowledged that grievances existed in Ireland which called for a remedy; and declared its willingness to propose expedients for their redress. Certain taxes paid by the Catholics for the support of the Protestant establishment, were therefore abolished; and an alteration made in regard to the bishoprics, a reduction of several being effected, by uniting them with other sees. By the latter regulation, a saving would be effected; and it was calculated that a fund would thus be at the disposal of the church, sufficiently adequate to compensate it for its other sacrifices.

A bill was passed during that session for a renewal of the charter of the Bank of England; subject, however, to certain regulations in reference to its notes, its management of the national debt, and other public business; and its interest on money.

As the charter of the East India Company was also approaching its termination, the public were desirous that the exclusive privileges enjoyed by this Company should be thrown open. The subject was therefore introduced into Parliament by Mr. Grant; who prefaced his resolutions by observing, that "the Company's monopoly of the trade with China ought no longer to exist; and it was only just to the public opinion in this case to state that, it was not the clamour of the moment, but the voice of an enlightened community, formed during a succession of years, and particularly since the renewal of the charter."

By this measure it was proposed, that "His Majesty's subjects should be at liberty to repair to the ports of China, and to trade in tea, and all other productions of that empire, subject to such regulations as parliament should enact for the protection of the commercial and political interests of this country." The other resolutions related to a transfer of the Company's obligations to the crown; and the government of our East Indian possessions, which was still to be entrusted to the Company, under such conditions as parliament should deem fit. The resolutions were agreed to in the Commons without opposition; and on the 5th of July in the Lords, without a division.

On the 14th of May, 1833, the ministerial scheme for the abolition of slavery, was introduced into the Commons by Mr. Stanley. By this measure, which passed both houses in the course of the session, it was enacted that, after the 1st of August, 1834, slavery should be abolished, but that the emancipation of the slave should be effected gradually, an intermediate term of apprenticeship being exacted; and Government proposed as a compensation to the owners, to grant them a loan of £15,000,000. But a loan not being regarded as a payment, a remonstrance was made to that effect by the West Indian interest; in consequence of which the loan was converted into a gift; and on a second remonstrance that the sum was inadequate, the gift or compensation was further increased from fifteen to twenty millions.

By this enactment, 800,000 of our fellow-creatures were placed on a level with their own species; and such an acknowledgment of the rights of humanity came with a grace peculiarly becoming from a nation which boasted of its own free privileges.

The Irish coercion bill passed during the last session, for suppressing insurrections and dangerous combinations, was to reach its termination in 1834. But though the efficiency of the bill had been fully proved by its beneficial results on the social condition of Ireland, yet such was still the state of that country, that ministers resolved upon a renewal of the measure. The Irish agitators, at the head of whom was Daniel O'Connel, the member for Dublin, regarded this bill with the most violent apprehensions; more particularly that section which was framed for preventing their political meetings. In consequence, however, of some misunderstandings in regard

to the measure, Lord Althorp, the chancellor of the exchequer, and leader of the Commons, seeing the impossibility of carrying the bill as introduced by the Lords gave in his resignation.

This secession on the part of Lord Althorp, served also as a prelude to the resignation also of Lord Grey, the premier; who felt convinced that he could not proceed without the aid of the leader of the Commons. Though it was at first supposed that these resignations would have been followed by a general breaking-up of the cabinet, yet, contrary to expectation, the remaining members retained their places; and resolving to maintain the same union, to seek only for a fresh premier. The choice fell upon Lord Melbourne, previously home secretary, who had now but to step into Lord Grey's place; whilst Lord Althorp was prevailed upon to resume his former office as chancellor of the exchequer.

The retention of place after the minister's resignation, the substitution of one premier for another, and the return of Lord Althorp to his former position, created a strong sensation among the members of the opposition, who viewed the whole as an irregular proceeding, and expressed their indignation in commensurate terms. This arrangement in the ministry having been effected, the coercion bill, which had proved so obnoxious to O'Connel and his party, was forthwith abandoned, and a modified bill of the same nature brought in, and passed.

The next measure of importance consequent on the reform bill, was the bill for altering and amending the laws relating to the poor, which was introduced into the Commons by Lord Althorp, on the 17th of April, 1834, and was passed during the session. By this enactment, the powers formerly vested in magistrates, were transferred to commissioners appointed by Government; out-door relief was entirely discontinued; and the accommodations of a workhouse were the only relief which the claimants for parochial support were entitled to demand.

Ireland still continued in an agitated state; outrages were of daily occurrence, and a disposition was shown in many places to resist the constituted authorities. Throughout the greater part of the country, the attempt to collect tithes was utterly useless, and the resistance which it occasioned was frequently followed by results of a serious character. The most lament-

able occurrence of this nature took place at Rathcormac, towards the end of the year.

The men employed by the improprietor of tithes in the parish of Castle Lyons, whose duty it was to serve notices on the landholders of the parish for payments of money due, had been maltreated. A representation to this effect was made by the improprietor to the Irish Government, accompanied with a request that military aid might be added to the civil power, as a protection to the persons so employed. The magistrates assembled at the petty sessions of Rathcormac, repeated this request, which was answered by a promise that troops should be sent. Some delay took place previous to the arrival of the military, and in the interim another request was forwarded to the Government, in consequence of a more serious outrage having taken place. A party of troops arrived on the 15th of December, at which time some disposition was shown to resistance, and it was found necessary to read the riot act; but on the 18th, the populace had greatly increased in numbers and opposed obstructions to the civil and military power. A body of the mob, about six hundred in number, had blocked up a lane with a car, and offered to the party such a formidable opposition, that their further progress was completely arrested.

The conduct of the populace becoming outrageous, the riot act was read. But the irritation was in no wise allayed by this proceeding—vollies of stones were hurled at the military, and many of the men, as well as the officers, were struck down. Every attempt to persuade the populace to disperse quietly having failed, the magistrates ordered the troops to fire. They did so, and several of the mob were killed or wounded.

Lord Althorp, on the death of his father, Earl Spencer, succeeded to the title, and being thus transferred to the House of Peers, it became necessary on November 10th, to select another to fill his office, and to lead the reformers in the House of Commons. Lord Melbourne, therefore, waited upon the king at Brighton, to submit to his approbation certain proposals for a change in the official appointments. Choice had been made of Lord John Russell as leader of the Commons. The king, however, expressed his opinion, that the business of the country could not be carried on by the ministry proposed, and objected to the choice of the Cabinet Ministers selected to construct the Irish church bill.

He therefore informed Lord Melbourne, that the task of forming a new administration would devolve upon the Duke of Wellington. The Duke accordingly waited upon his Majesty on the day ensuing, and suggested the expediency of entrusting the duty to Sir Robert Peel, at that time resident in Italy, but made an offer of his own services to carry on the business until Sir Robert's return. This proposal was assented to, and the Duke of Wellington was temporarily appointed as first Lord of the Treasury, and sworn in as one of the chief secretaries of state. At the same time Lord Lyndhurst received the great seal, and took the oaths as Lord Chancellor.

The intricate duties of a whole administration now devolved upon the Duke of Wellington, and the satisfactory results of his arduous exertions could not have been too highly appreciated.

Sir Robert Peel arrived in London on the 9th of December, by the end of the month the official arrangements were brought to a completion. Sir Robert Peel became first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer; Lord Lyndhurst, lord chamberlain; the Duke of Wellington, secretary for foreign affairs; and Mr. Goulburn, for the home department.

On the 30th of December a proclamation was issued for dissolving Parliament, as also for convoking a new one, which was to meet on the 19th of February, 1835.

On the 16th of October, 1834, both houses of Parliament, with the libraries, and almost all the offices, were destroyed by a conflagration, which broke out between six and seven in the evening. The fire advanced with such fury and rapidity, that fears were for some time entertained that the venerable structure of Westminster-hall would share in the destruction. As the huge portals of that building situated in palace-yard were thrown open, the observer had a distinct view, from the yard of the large gothic window at the farther end, behind which a sheet of flames, which illumined the whole hall, was most picturesquely visible. The injury, however, sustained by the building, was exceedingly trifling.

Authorities were upon the spot with strong bodies of police, and soldiery, who united their exertions in endeavouring to save the public papers and documents of importance, great portions of which were fortunately rescued. Parliament, in

consequence of this fire, was further prorogued to the 25th of November, and it was arranged, that the House of Lords, the walls of which were still standing, should be fitted up for the next Session of the Commons, and the painted chamber for that of the Lords. The reports and conjectures as to the origin of the fire, were various and unsatisfactory; and at an investigation before the privy council, assembled for the purpose, evidence was given, which, if credible, would have favoured a belief, that the calamity had been occasioned by an act of incendiarism. The opinion, however, formed from the investigation, resolved itself at length into the most probable supposition, that the fire originated from the excessive heat of the flues used for warming the House of Lords, which had been more than usually heated that day by a large fire occasioned by burning the exchequer tallies.

In Spain and Portugal, the two young Queens united their interests to rid themselves of their competitors, Don Carlos and Don Miguel. Britain and France had joined in a treaty for the furtherance of this resolution; and to General Rodil had been entrusted the command of the Spanish army.

In the commencement of April, Rodil crossed the frontiers of Portugal with a strong force of troops, without meeting with any opposition; while Don Carlos fell back to the position occupied by Don Miguel upon the Tagus. By the 16th of the month, Rodil had fixed his head-quarters at Guarda, and by a rapid march surprised Don Carlos at Sardoza, before he himself, and his rear guard with the baggage of his family, had departed. The Carlists, thus unexpectedly assailed, fled in confusion, and Rodil captured the whole of the luggage, depriving, as he afterwards boasted, both Carlos and his family of even a change of linen.

Don Carlos with his family, and a few adherents who still clung to his fortunes, retreated to Santarem, in hopes of assistance from Don Miguel. But the position of the two princes, placed between the forces of Rodil and Terceira, and discountenanced both by Britain and France, was too discouraging for them to think of adopting any measure but that of effecting their own personal safety. A negociation, therefore, was entered into by Don Miguel, who consented, on condition of being allowed a yearly pension, to banish himself from the Peninsula; and an agreement to that effect was drawn up, and signed on the 26th of May. A few days afterwards, Don

Miguel embarked on board a British ship of war for Genoa; and had no sooner reached that city, than he issued a declaration, in which he affirmed, that the convention he had signed was not binding, as he had been compelled to the act in order to avert greater calamities and to spare the lives of his subjects.

Attempts were made to impose the same obligations upon Don Carlos; but as the Portuguese government had not prevented him from placing himself under the protection of a British man-of-war, he resolutely objected to binding himself by any engagements, having, as he observed, been received under the flag of Britain, free from all conditions; and that therefore the honour of that flag would not allow them to be imposed. The prince, with his family and suite, were allowed to land in England, where they took up their abode in the vicinity of London. His stay in Britain was but of short duration. He had still a party and arms in Biscay and Navarre, who urged his return without delay, and that the more imperatively, as the meeting of the Cortes was now approaching, when feelings of excitement and political discord would have free range. Don Carlos resolved, therefore, to repair to his partizans in the north of Spain; and this design he actually effected, eluding the vigilance of the French police, and reaching Navarre before it was suspected that he had even quitted England.

He left London on the 1st of July, with one solitary companion, and proceeded through France on the high road to Spain. On the 4th of July, he reached Paris, and visited the theatre without being recognized; and on the day ensuing, he quitted that capital; his only companion remaining behind, to baffle the authorities with other matters, so that it might not be suspected that they had any views beyond Paris. He proceeded through Bordeaux and Bayonne, alike free from suspicion, crossed the frontiers of Spain on the 9th of July, and on the 10th, was joyfully received at the head-quarters of his own army.

Rodil was still in command of the Queen's troops, and against this general, Carlos, with his former changeable and indecisive fortune, still continued the contest. At length, however, the Carlist general Zumalacarragui obtained an advantage at Vittoria over the Queen's general Osma, who had succeeded Rodil. The news of this defeat filled the capital

with alarm, and the command of the army was transferred to Mina, who defeated Zumalacarragui at Asarte; but the Carlist general was again soon in the field.

In Portugal, Don Pedro convoked a meeting of the Cortes, and the first act of the legislature was to invest him with the regency, pending the period of the young Queen's minority. But his exercise of this power was but of short continuance. His health had been declining for some time previously, and on the 22nd of September, he expired.

On the 1st of December, the marriage of the Queen to the Duke of Leuchtenberg, the son of Eugene Beauharnois, and brother to Don Pedro's wife, was celebrated in Lisbon by proxy; and a bill for excluding Don Miguel and his descendants from the crown of Portugal, was passed.

The result of the elections in Great Britain considerably strengthened the new administration; and but for the returns of the Irish constituency, the influence of ministers would have been complete. Yet, notwithstanding this drawback, the two parties were so nearly balanced, that, in order to try on which side lay the preponderance, the united whig and radical party determined to oppose the re-election of the speaker. Sir Charles Manners Sutton had filled the speaker's chair for a period of eighteen years; and the experience he had gained in the forms and business of the house had become most valuable; in addition to which, he had shed a lustre over the debates by his talents and learning, and had displayed so much wisdom and moderation of temper while in the chair, particularly through the tempestuous passage of the reform bill, that his re-election would not have been opposed unless upon some party manœuvre, as in the present instance. Mr. Abercromby, one of the members for Edinburgh, was the person proposed to fill Sir Charles' place. The election of Mr. Abercromby was secured by a majority of ten votes only; and Sir Charles Manners Sutton was called to the peerage, by the title of Viscount Canterbury.

The marriage of dissenters, and the commutation of tithes, two of the measures reserved by the opposition as a test of the capabilities of the new ministry, had now been brought forward, and there still remained the municipal reform and the Irish church. The latter was selected by the opposition for defeating the administration by numerical force. Their success was to depend upon one point, the application of the

surplus revenue of the Irish church to other objects than those exclusively connected with the Protestant religion; and this was the point they well knew Sir Robert Peel would never accede to. The avowed policy of Mr. O'Connel and the opposition, was to appropriate this surplus indifferently for the education both of Catholics and Protestants, and endow public schools, in which children might be educated without reference to creed or party.

The defeat of ministers was at length effected by a majority of 27, upon a resolution made by Lord John Russell, that any measure introduced regarding Irish tithes ought to be founded upon the principle of appropriation. The resignation of ministers was announced in the Commons by Sir Robert Peel, on the 8th of April, 1835; and on the same evening in the Lords by the Duke of Wellington.

The arrangements for completing a new administration were not finished before the 18th, when Lord Melbourne was re-appointed as first lord of the treasury; Mr. Spring Rice became chancellor of the exchequer; Lord John Russell, the home, and Lord Palmerston, the foreign secretary; and the lord lieutenancy of Ireland was conferred upon Lord Mulgrave. But a delay occurred in the nomination of a new lord chancellor. As a temporary arrangement, the great seal was put into commission, the commissioners being, the master of the rolls, the vice chancellor, and Mr. Bosanquet.

The first important measure introduced by the new ministry, was that for reforming the English corporations. The debates on this bill were most animated; and it did not pass without a protracted struggle. On the 7th of September, the bill, as amended by the Lords, was agreed to by the Commons; and under that modification became law.

France had for some time been kept in excitement by plots and commotions in different parts of the empire, but more particularly in the large manufacturing city of Lyons; and the cases of no less than one thousand prisoners had been examined into by the chamber of Peers. Of this number of prisoners the whole were discharged, with the exception of 164, who were implicated either in republican conspiracies or insurrectionary conduct at Lyons or Paris.

The attention of the Parisians was now diverted by a crime of such magnitude and audacity, that the annals of history scarcely produce its parallel. The three days' revolution, to

which we have referred in the beginning of the reign, had been celebrated by a political festival. On the arrival of this anniversary, the usual preparations were being made, when reports were current that an attack was meditated on the king's life. Several persons were apprehended; but nothing was elicited which could warrant a belief that any conspiracy actually existed. Nevertheless, precautions were not neglected.

On the second day of the festival, the 28th of July, the king having reviewed a large body of troops, was riding along the Boulevard du Temple, accompanied by his civil and military officers, when an explosion took place from a window adjacent, the effects of which were immediately perceptible in the prostration of the slain and wounded. Marshal Mortier, General de Verigny, a colonel, several men of the national guard, and some of the multitude who were looking on, were shot dead. The number of killed and wounded amounted to nearly forty, fourteen of whom were killed. But the king, against whose life this attempt had been directed, escaped uninjured. As soon as the explosion had taken place, the police hastened to the house, from a window of which the smoke had issued, and were just in time to seize the assassin; who, himself bleeding from wounds received by the bursting of part of his machine, was then in the act of letting himself down by a rope. This machine, which had dealt forth so much destruction, was formed of nearly thirty gun barrels ranged side by side, upon a wooden frame, the back of which could be raised or lowered, and the barrels levelled against the objects aimed at in the road. The whole number of the barrels had been heavily loaded with powder and bullets; and were connected together by a train of gunpowder, on the ignition of which they all exploded. The assassin would probably have effected his escape, but for the bursting of some of these barrels; but wounded and stunned, it was some time before he could reach the window; and in this interval the police arrived. The machine had been concealed from the view of those in the road by Persian blinds, which were not to be withdrawn till the moment arrived for kindling the train; and it was conjectured that to the delay occasioned in raising the blinds, the king was indebted for his escape.

The assassin proved to be a Corsican, named Fieschi, who had led a disreputable life; had been pilloried and imprisoned for fraudulent perjury and theft; had formerly been a soldier,

and had also been employed as a police spy. Three other persons in an obscure rank of life, were afterwards discovered to have been connected with the plot; but it did not appear that the project had emanated from any political body, or that any others were implicated. The trial took place in January 1836; when Fieschi, Morey, and Pepin, were condemned to death, and Boireau to twenty years imprisonment. By the statement of Fieschi, Morey and Pepin had concerted the scheme, and had provided funds for its accomplishment; Morey himself assisting Fieschi in loading the barrels on the night previous to the explosion. They were guillotined on the 19th of February. Morey and Pepin protested their innocence on the scaffold; and Fieschi, who from his first apprehension had displayed to the world a vanity and desperation truly pitiable, kept up his bravado to the last minute, and died as he had lived, remorseless.

In Spain, the successes of the Carlists were so rapidly increasing, that the Spanish Government felt itself justified in having recourse to the aid of its allies. The English government had already furnished a large supply of arms and ammunition, to the estimated value of £200,000; and considered that further claims on the part of Spain were not warranted by existing circumstances. A request was then made by the Spanish government that the operations of the foreign enlistment act might be suspended, in order that a body of 10,000 British troops might be recruited into the Spanish service. The request was granted, and an order in council to that effect was made public on the 19th of June. Recruits were now levying in all parts of the kingdom, and Colonel Evans, a British officer, accepted the command of the new levy.

A spirit of discontent, and a restless desire for change, had pervaded the country so extensively, that by the end of August, Spain was in a state of political anarchy. Revolts had occurred in several of the provinces, which taking advantage of the helpless state of the government, had constructed each a government for itself, and exercised the prerogatives of the executive. In this state of affairs, Mendizabal, who had been long resident in England as a financial agent of the Portuguese government, was deputed by the Queen Isabel the 2nd to form a ministry, adapted to the crisis. By a ready adoption of the liberal policy, which he recommended, the government of Spain resumed its former functions, and the revolted

provinces burying their disaffection under the prospect of extensive privileges, returned once more to their allegiance. During the month of July the British troops, to the number of 8 or 9,000 arrived in the north at Santandar and San Sebastian, in which places they were forthwith drilled, and received their equipments for the Spanish service.

The condition of England during this, and the succeeding year, presents but little for the page of history. During the session of 1836, a bill was passed for the commutation of English tithes, by which it was provided, that a board of commissioners should be appointed for arranging the question of commutation, with powers to appoint assistant commissioners. The measure was constructed upon the principle of voluntary commutation, though the power of compulsion was fully recognised in such cases as rendered its adoption expedient. The bill was read a second time in the Lords without opposition, on the 7th of July, and was passed on the 22nd, after which bills were passed for the registration of births, deaths, and marriages, and for the celebration of marriages.

To return to Spain; the Christinos (or Queen's) troops, under Espartero, and backed by the naval force of Lord John Hay, whose seamen, marines, and cannon, were of the most essential service, obliged the Carlists, under Villa Real, to evacuate Bilboa. The position of the latter was forced on the 25th, the Carlists abandoning a great part of their artillery, and retreating in the direction of Durango, and Bilboa was entered on the same day by the vanguard of Espartero.

The success of this achievement was allowed on all sides to have been mainly the result of the vigorous efforts of the officers and men of the British naval force. In Catalonia and Arragon, the system of warfare pursued by the Carlists was as harassing as it was irregular, their attacks were made by detached bodies, which appeared only when opportunities favoured.

In Catalonia, where they occupied several positions, they rushed from their ambushes upon small parties of troops, whom, as it was reported, they invariably put to death; and, they were scarcely expelled from one quarter, before they were again mustered in another; and when worsted and pursued, retired to their fastnesses in the mountains.

General Mina had considerably weakened their numbers, and abridged the extent of their devastations, pursuing this

perplexing and unsatisfactory warfare, under the disadvantage of increasing ill-health, which at length terminated in his death, towards the end of December.

In Portugal, the Constitution of 1820 was proclaimed in Lisbon, on the 9th of September, by the military, the Queen having no alternative but that of concession, and by two o'clock of the following morning, it had received the royal assent. The Constitution of 1820 was entirely framed upon democratic principles, providing but one legislative chamber, instead of two, and enacting an election by ballot all over the kingdom, and in one day.

The tranquillity which prevailed in the social state of England, the prosperity of her commerce at home and abroad, and her friendly relations with foreign powers, during the commencement of 1837, leaves us nothing to record, but the fatal illness of his Majesty.

The health of the Sovereign had been gradually declining for some months previous to his death, and on the 20th of June, 1837, he breathed his last.

His reign was brief, extending over a period of not quite seven years, and his death took place in the seventy-second year of his age.

Regret for his death, and respect for his memory, were universally manifest on the day of his funeral, but in no place more so than in the metropolis, where business was suspended, and the day observed with solemnity.

He died at Windsor, and his remains were deposited in the family vault of that castle.

William IV. was succeeded by her present Majesty, VICTORIA, daughter of the late Duke of Kent.

THE END.